DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 143 661	95	SP 011 535

TITLE	The Urban Inservice Education Experience, Fordham University, New York. Teacher Corps Reports: Inservice Development Processes.
INSTITUTION	Fordham Univ., Bronx, N.Y.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Teacher Corps.
PUB DATE	77
CONTRACT	300-76-0304
NOTE	297p.; For related documents, see SP 011 534, 535, and 536
EDRS PRICE	MF-\$0.83 HC-\$15.39 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Curriculum Development; Inner City; *Inservice Teacher Education; *Interinstitutional Cooperation; Needs Assessment; *Open Plan Schools; *Program Design; Public Schools; School Community Relationship; Teacher Education; Teacher Evaluation; Unions; *Urban Education; Urban Universities
IDENTIFIERS	Fordham University NY; New York (New York)

ABSTRACT

The papers in this volume emerge from the experience of Fordham University and the Angelc Patri Intermediate School through their mutual efforts to establish an open-space school in a highly complex, low-income neighborhood of inner-city New York. The papers prepare the reader to understand the process involved in developing programs under conditions of organizational change and the implementation of new programs and concepts of education. Close coordination with the union was maintained, and the papers reflect an understanding of working with the teachers' organization as a collaborative partner. The following topics are covered by the study: (1) collaborating in inservice education: a teacher's perspective; (2) changing and emerging roles in education: the role of the superintendent; (3) a Dean's reappraisal of the university's role in inservice education; (4) school community interaction; (5) open education as an alternative; (6) designing inservice education; (7) adapting college courses for on-site teacher education; (8) professional staff needs assessment; (9) school design and the educational process; (10) an inservice "lifeshop"; (11) students' role in quality education; (12) the school-based trainer of teachers; (13) curriculum development: its goals and strategies; (14) incentives for teachers in inservice education; (15) the supervisor as school instructional leader; (16) teacher evaluation-a teacher unionist's view; (17) the urban mission of the university. (JD)

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S REPORTS:

VICE DEVELOPMENT PROCE

THE URBAN INSERVICE EDUCATION EXPERIENCE
FORDHAM UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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The Urban Inservice Education Experience

Fordham University, New York

One of four reports prepared for Teacher Corps by Arlington Public Schools, Virginia; Fordham University, New York; Washington West School District, Vermont; and Western Washington State College.

The material reported herein was prepared pursuant to Contract No. 300-76-0304 with Teacher Corps, U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgement in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

INTRODUCTION

Somewhat over a year ago Teacher Corps initiated a procedure to contract for the design of Inservice Development Processes which could be used by a total school faculty in a single school site. The end-products of the contracts, it was envisioned, would be useful for designing the inservice component of a Teacher Corps project. As well, the planning process itself seemed a weak link in overall strategies for developing inservice. The materials, therefore, might eventually find a broad audience among educators beyond the Teacher Corps family. In May, 1976, a Request for Proposals was issued. It described the background and issues to be covered as follows.

As a result of recent legislative changes, Teacher Corps has been directed to undertake the mission of "supporting demonstration projects for retraining experienced teachers and teacher aides serving in local educational agencies." Teacher Corps views this new authority as a reasonable extension of the Intern experience and requires that preservice and inservice be conceptualized as individual parts of a single continuum of professional development. Because of limits on funding, and because change theory indicates a preference for the strategy, Teacher Corps interns and teams are placed in a single school setting, and the regular staff of that school--teachers, aides, and others (including community aides and interested parents)--are considered to be the retraining population. A project must show how it will effect this total school staff through the supplemental services provided by interns, direct retraining programs, and community service efforts.

The word, retraining, is intended to denote activities which are directed at improving the person's performance of assigned responsibilities through the provision of additional cognitive, affective, experiential, supervisory/advisory or other learning inputs. Retraining may mean inservice, or the two may be considered as strategies with the context of professional development and/or continuing professional education. The terminology is less important than the concept which suggests (1) a continuing improvement of teacher (and other professional/paraprofessional) proficiency throughout the lifetime of the practitioner, (2) preparation for additional responsibilities within the role than those developed during preservice experiences, (3) remediation and continued improving (including updating) of teaching skills, and (4) consideration of roles and skills other than teaching (or classroom related) required for the successful practice of the profession.

The purposes and motivation for retraining may vary widely within the Teacher Corps project. Some schools may be concerned with challenging a particular problem or curriculum issue, e.g., improvement of discipline, upgrading of reading skills, faculty cooperation/communication for policy making or curriculum planning, etc. These needs may have been developed through faculty cooperative planning, directed by central office fiat, or generated by changes in curriculum, social conditions, or community desires. The impetus may be either external or self-initiated by the person or the group. In any event, Teacher Corps is concerned with the total school faculty as the unit of instruction and change through the retraining process. Appropriate activities are described for each role group within the cooperating school, and necessary linkages are designed with preservice through the vehicle provided by the intern's program.

Within this group context, however, considerable attention is devoted to meeting the particular needs of each individual professional and/or paraprofessional. As Rubin suggests, "True artistry in teacher inservice education is a matter of fashioning expert performance out of the raw materials inherent in the teacher's nature. The sine qua non of healthy teacher inservice education is to enlarge rather than obliterate individual difference. The inservice process, therefore, while contributing to the quality and performance of the overall faculty and staff, must be designed to assist each individual member of the school group to learn what is needed to attain individual professional goals."

The foregoing considerations suggest that the inservice process must first evolve from an understanding of the purposes and limitations of preservice, the various levels of certification of faculty members (including the interest of some in achieving certification), and the relative years of experience of individual faculty persons. If total staff involvement is to be achieved, considerable attention must be directed towards building a mutual interest among the total faculty while providing for the various individual motivations. Inservice in the past has been directed to more limited kinds of problems and issues than is suggested by this stance.

From another point of view, inservice education is one method for organizational change and development, but it is only one method and one part of an effective plan. Inservice, or professional upgrading, must be related to some sense of desired institutional change, either in terms of improved student learning or variation in staff utilization (perhaps the introduction of team teaching or ungrading, etc.). In order to develop an effective inservice program, the school must have established some objectives for change, examined the institutional limits on change in either program or structure, involved the community in its proposals for change (and as sources of information and expertise), and considered the types of support required to bring change about. Inservice then becomes an important concomitant of the improvement of education for children within the school.

The inservice effort involves a number of organizations beyond the school, even when the efforts at planning are school-based. Perhaps the major interest group is the teachers association or union which establishes professional conditions for participation. The school district must consider the implications of the retraining both in terms of retraining costs and additional salary requirements. Further implications for the district include the effects on the community of moving forward with one school, even experimentally, possible changed relationships and communications with the community served by the school (especially new demands), limits on structural and/or organizational changes imposed by management styles or district policies, and relationships with other educational organizations.

The State Education Agency (SEA) role is particularly significant in the design and delivery of inservice. An SEA should have a plan governing appropriate inservice policies and procedures. Roy Edelfelt, in Rethinking Inservice Education (Washinton, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975) suggests that the basis and structure for development of a continuing education program within a state contains these essential elements:

1. A legal framework for organization
2. A conceptual framework
3. A design framework
4. A support framework

Within this context he goes on to suggest that "an examination of new proposals and plans for continuing education at the local district level might begin by addressing the decision-making processes, the relationship of the plan to program improvement, the intended participants, the adequacy of resources, and the extent of commitment to teacher education."

The university school of education has been the traditional supplier of inservice training, usually through course formats or the design/delivery of workshops to meet district developed needs. Teachers requiring certification have usually found the institute for higher education (IHE) the only source of state approved credits, even when the courses have not contributed directly to the teacher's perceived needs within the particular teaching context. Too often university study has led to other professional levels or positions--training for up and out of the classroom--rather than reinforcing and expanding the teacher's skills for direct involvement with students. While the IHE retains an important role in the design and delivery of inservice, the focus of power for planning and designing programs is shifting to the local school district and to the organized profession.

Indeed, the significant element in the planning and delivery of inservice education is teacher power, emerging as the organizing element which may lead to a reconceptualization of the various institutional roles. Important issues related to teacher power include motivation for inservice, remuneration or other rewards (including inservice time scheduled during the regular professional day), and implications on staff roles, promotions, etc. Perhaps the least appreciated aspect of inservice education within the emerging field of concern is the importance of considering the teacher power issue and/or of facilitating teacher-controlled and directed inservice efforts.

This general background succinctly describes a number of issues which Teacher Corps seeks to challenge through this procurement. While the general focus remains on the improvement of a total faculty through inservice, in conjunction with the training of teacher-interns, this process must be considered in light of the communities and institutions which form the support and control systems impinging on the individual school, including the SEA and the IHE's.

At this juncture, considerable effort has been devoted to the study of the inservice problem by universities and professional associations. A small body of theory and viable practices has emerged, and a rather considerable literature on the subject is readily available. In addition to theory, this study of inservice has dealt with problems, issues, various organization and power roles, recommended procedures for planning policy and/or programs, and the relationship of various innovations(e.g., teacher centers) to the development of inservice programs. The study has considered the roles of the SEA, IHE's, teacher agencies, and, to a lesser extent, the community. While some attention has been devoted to aides, paraprofessionals, and community volunteers, these persons have been less well considered than teachers.

In spite of this theoretical/research base, there are only limited strategies and operating principles for planning and delivering inservice education, especially programs which are teacher power based (i.e., designed, motivated, administered, and evaluated by teachers) and which are concerned with the total faculty of a school. The relationship of the SEA, IHE, community, and other organizations to this kind of approach remains unclear, and the problems of teacher motivation have been explicated but not dealt with. In this context, Teacher Corps project design groups, aimed at the demonstration of new and viable programs and processes, find themselves limited in resources for project planning and development, and a critical need emerges as guidelines for the project to use in the development of inservice programs within the cooperating school.

It was anticipated that each contractor would design a procedure and set of immediately usable materials which could be distributed to interested single-school faculty groups and would deal with some or all of the following general questions related to the planning of inservice:

- What are the purposes of inservice education?
- What models and designs (power models, organizational, designs, delivery models, etc.) are useful for development within the total school context?
- How do differences in understanding about the functions and purposes of inservice education by various concerned groups (SEA, IHE, school district, teachers association, community, students, etc.) affect the selection, design, implementation, or use of various models, procedures, etc.? (Consideration should be given to the differences in viewpoints of vested or non-vested interest groups.)
- How would an inservice planning group use present theoretical bases, research, and extant prototypes in arriving at a situation-specific plan?
- What functions can interns perform (or what roles can they play) in relation to the inservice aspects of the Teacher Corps project?
- How can the LEA, or the school site, collaborate with the SEA, IHE, and other inservice resources, especially community resources?
- What incentives are there within the local situation for inservice, and how can they be exploited?
- How can the inservice be a true continuing staff development effort by considering the various levels of teacher experience and certification (despite a relatively flat career mode)?
- How can the inservice consider not only teaching and classroom related behaviors but also the other roles required of teachers and other staff members, including professional group member, planner and policy maker, learner, citizen, and community member?

The Four Contracts

As a result of the procurement effort four contracts were awarded. Each contract represented a cooperative effort between a local education agency and an institution of higher education.

Other organizations, relevant to the inservice effort of the particular contractor, were included as partners in the planning. Usually, the teachers organization was heavily involved in the design effort, and sometimes parents or students were included. All contractors were responsible for assuring the review of their materials and planning procedures by a total school faculty in a single school site, not so much for validation, as to insure that the materials spoke to faculty interests and needs in a reasonable way.

The contract period of performance was initially to be six months, but the work proved too complex for such a short period of time and was extended to ten months. During this time the contract directors met twice as a group to share ideas and to report progress. They were also able to attend a number of Teacher Corps events related to inservice planning. The experience of the contracts became a rich one both for the contractors and for Teacher Corps planning efforts.

Each contract proceded to undertake the tasks in quite distinctly different directions, and this independent approach is reflected in these reports. Each of the four had been selected because the sites offered contrasting considerations of what were believed to be some key factors. For example, two contracts were awarded to Teacher Corps sites (Fordham and Western Washington). Although Arlington, Virginia, had just been funded, the district had no previous experience with the Corps, and Washington West (Vermont) had never participated in a project. Two sites were rural (Vermont and Western Washington); two were urban

(Fordham and Arlington). Two prime contractors were school districts (Arlington and Vermont), and two were institutions of higher education (Fordham and Western Washington). Teacher organizations were heavily involved in two projects: the UFT with Fordham and the NEA with Western Washington. While there was contact and occasionally assistance from the local and/or national organizations with the other two contracts, the relationship was less endemic to the success of the ventures.

Summary of Each Report

A brief summary of each contract's outcomes follows.

Arlington, Virginia Public Schools
426 No. Quincy St. Arlington, VA 22207

MODEL FOR SINGLE SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS OR PROGRAMS WITHIN A LARGE URBAN-SUBURBAN CENTRAL SYSTEM

The inservice planning guidelines, project management procedures, organizational structures for teacher and community involvement, and the initiation/implementation/incorporation processes suggested by the Arlington report and models for single school Teacher Corps use are based on the following community and system characteristics:

- large urban-suburban system with a wide range of central resources, individual school organizations, and diverse student/teacher/school needs.
- rapid changes in the nature of the student population in terms of language, mainstreaming, skills development and career preparation needs.
- active community interest and involvement in school policy and decision-making through an established standing and ad hoc committee structure and network.
- active teacher participation and involvement in parallel ad hoc and standing committees for decision-making and information sharing on the single school and system levels.

- the use of annual school plans and school board goals as planning tools for implementing system and school based staff development or curriculum development projects;
- a built-in staff development vehicle in each system-based and school-based program or area of specialization to deliver service to the single school site or classroom;
- recognition of a need to distinguish between school-generated and mandated goals and inservice and to face the realities of shrinking financial resources for supporting inservice activities.

In addition to examining the components of traditional formal or informal planned inservice activities at a single school site, the report and models emphasize a concept of continuing staff development which can emerge or evolve from active teacher participation and involvement in curriculum development, textbook selection, policy making, program planning, decision making, or classroom materials development activities on the single school and system levels. Groups who propose school based inservice/preservice Teacher Corps projects based on the Arlington teacher and community involvement process models have the following resources to use as guides for their individual single school planning purposes:

PART I: CENTRAL SYSTEM ANALYSIS

An analysis of a central system's organization and resources in terms of its impact on single school staff development programs and the impact of single school programs on the system level. Topics discusses include: annual school plans; school board goals; influence of reorganization; The Teachers' Council on Instruction; Teachers' Innovative Fund; surveys and resource files; the role of curriculum, media, resource, or program specialists and coordinators;

the influence of contact teachers, coordinating or advisory committees; impact of career, human relations, bilingual education, special education, humanities, volunteer and state or federal special programs on single school staff programs.

PART II: COMPONENT PAPERS

The Role of the Principal is based on observations and perceptions of ten principals, each representing a different level and form of school organization.

Decision-Making discusses a variety of decision-making processes, examines factors affecting levels of teacher participation, outlines a variety of roles and structures for decision-making, and places emphasis on the differences between mandated and self-generated goals and how they affect teacher decision-making.

Incentives discusses teacher participation in inservice planning and implementation and the organizational structure as an incentive and lists over 80 specific inservice incentives cited by system personnel as contributing to the success of school programs.

Collaboration addresses mutual needs, participants' roles, authority and governance, implementation, and evaluation needs and activities and describes actual experiences with state education agencies, institutions of higher education, civic and government agencies, community, business and volunteer groups in cooperative school based programs.

Problems lists and discusses a variety of inservice problems associated with time, money, apathy, interest, confidence, administrative support, staff leadership abilities and expertise, planning, organization, and management. Other sections deal with a total school inservice program which failed from lack of teacher and community involvement in the planning, and 2) a Teacher Corps Project currently in operation within the school system.

PART III: HYPOTHETICAL MODELS

Hypothetical process models for initiating preservice/inservice Teacher Corps Projects at a single school site are designed for elementary and secondary school staff use based on the Training Complex and the Interdisciplinary Approach frameworks. Each model outlines processes for in-school proposal design and writing and guides for Community Steering groups to use during the planning consensus, committment, decision-making and implementation stages of project design and staff acceptance procedures. Both models suggest using the library or Media Center as a base of operations, a strong project newspaper, ways to involve interns in all school and professional activities, ways to overcome "substitute syndrome," on site IHE coursework including a management/hands-on course for project staff and key school personnel and a method for holding a series of "Bounce" sessions to gain staff, administrative, and community support in advance of project implementation.

The elementary model, PRESERVICE/INSERVICE EDUCATION, is based on an open concept school organization characterized by active teacher involvement in a vertical and horizontal committee structure for staff and curriculum development purposes. The theme of the hypothetical project revolves around a total school effort to implement a new writing skills goal and a school-community "Planning for the Future" program. However, the model can be adapted to any school organization or for implementing other school-generated goals.

The secondary model, BASICS: LIFE AND SKILLS TEACHING, suggests ways to teach the four basic academic skills of reading, writing, computation, and study across discipline lines. Featured aspects of the project include buzz groups; "Four and One" and "Buddy" group needs assessment and material development activities; community skills enrichment days; and special intern study and skills development activities.

Most suggested processes and guidelines for implementing Teacher Corps projects contained in each model can be used at either the secondary or elementary levels and many of the proposed structures, workshop topics or inservice activities could be conducted by a school staff without outside assistance.

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THE URBAN INSERVICE EDUCATION EXPERIENCE

The papers in this volume emerge from the experience of Fordham University and the Angelo Patri Intermediate School through their mutual efforts to establish an open-space school in a highly complex low-income neighborhood of inner city New York. No planning model for inservice, as such, emerges from the volume but the collection of papers prepare the reader to understand the process involved in developing programs under conditions of organizational change and the implementation of new programs and concepts of education. Close coordination with the union was maintained throughout the contract, and papers reflect a clear understanding of working with the teachers' organization as a collaborative partner. The approach is clearly aimed at big city, open space, collaborative inservice experiences and would be of particular interest for persons working under these kinds of conditions. Others, however, may find valuable suggestions from the recording of experiences as one faculty developed rapport and self-initiated efforts. The following topics are covered by the study:

Acknowledgements
Introduction
Collaborating in Inservice Education: A teacher's perspective
Changing and Emerging Roles in Education: The role of the superintendent
Some Second Thoughts: A dean's reappraisal of the university's role in inservice education
School-Community Interaction
Open Education as an Alternative
Designing Inservice Education
Adapting College Courses for On-Site Teacher Education
Professional Staff Needs Assessment: A discrepancy analysis
School Design and the Educational Process
Lake Como to Frost Valley: An inservice "LifeShop"
Students' Role in Quality Education
The School-based Trainer of Teachers
Curriculum Development: Its goals and strategies
Incentives for Teachers in Inservice Education
The Supervisor as School Instructional Leader
Teacher Evaluation: A teacher unionist's view
The Urban Mission of the University
Contributors

Washington West School District
RFD #1 Box 53-E
Moretown, Vermont

A RESOURCE GUIDE FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Materials consist of a manual organized in a loose-leaf notebook for use by teacher groups in planning inservice. Short substantive narratives are followed by practical do-it-yourself exercises which help teachers plan and develop inservice education, find resources, use outside assistance, and understand the many potential functions of inservice education. The model presented is essentially a straight-forward approach to planning beginning with needs assessment and continuing through delivery of inservice. Use of informal models is stresses. Emphasis is placed on the special conditions of rural schools and rural teachers, although the materials are generally useful to others. No special inservice coordinator would be required to initiate activities within a small single school site. Topics covered include the following:

- Introduction
- Types of Teacher Inservice Education
- Needs Assessment-Introduction
    - Teacher Needs Assessment
    - Needs Assessment in a Curriculum Area
    - Schoolwide Needs Assessment Strategy
- Meeting and Workshop Format
- Incentives
- Parent/Community Awareness of Inservice Teacher Education
- Release Time Models
- LEA/IHE Collaboration
- Funding for Inservice Education
- School Board Awareness
- Governance
- Administrative Support
- Negotiations and Inservice
- The Role of the State Department of Education in Inservice
- Rural Teacher Centers
- General Appendix

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A GENERIC MODEL FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

Included in the materials are a monograph, slide-tape introducing the planning model, and step-by-step procedures permitting a faculty to design its own inservice program following the steps in the model. Several scenarios are provided which are intended to provide concrete examples of effective, but different, inservice programs that could be developed under the rubric of the planning process.

The planning model is envisioned as taking place in a three-phase project. The model is presented schematically in Figure 1.

The initial phase is the determination of purpose for the local inservice program which involves two considerations: the definition of purpose and the analysis of limits. In the "Process Guide for the Initial Planning of an Inservice Program," which is one of the materials accompanying this monograph, there is a set of tasks to be used by a local group to accomplish the determination of purpose. This set of procedures will be referred to as Process A.

The second phase of the planning process is the design of the program elements. This part of the planning process is done by a representative committee which utilizes the information obtained in Process A. The committee proposes a plan for inservice based on the general definition and purpose. This phase is called Process B.

The third phase of the planning process is an evaluation scheme which is designed to be used by an external evaluator who reviews not only the agreed upon plan, but the planning process as well. This phase is referred to as Process C.

The generic model for inservice education and the planning process which utilizes the generic model attempt to provide a local team with a conceptual framework and a step-by-step procedure which will lead to a local, site-specific inservice education program. The variability of the programs from site to site will depend to a large degree on the local purposes which will determine the characteristics of the actual program. The value of the planning process will be judged in its ability to assist the local team in preparing a program which is internally consistent, that is, a program which has clearly stated purposes, and procedures which are likely to achieve these purposes.

Some Generalizations

A number of general conclusions emerged from the reports and may be of interest for future inservice planning. First, teachers as central to the inservice process, will become involved in planning and developing inservice to meet their own needs, but they will reject "outside" programs "laid on" by districts or institutions of higher education. Each report, while more or less adaptable to other areas as it stands, nevertheless clearly reflects a particular set of political and organizational factors within the environment from which it was created. In other words, inservice planning is rather strongly dependent on the particular milieu of the planners. Although the contracts were selected to reflect factors considered to differentiate among sites, the materials produced by each contract have applicability in situations not defined by these factors. For example, the practical exercises developed by Vermont would be found useful in urban or suburban settings, as well. The role of the institution of higher education emerges as one of potential service to the school faculty through the vehicle of collaborative planning, rather than the traditional one of control of coursework and credits.

The conclusions of most interest concern the definitions and approaches to inservice education and its conditions. Each contractor defined and structured inservice differently. For example, Arlington developed a model-type program based on the use of enormous resources from the central office of a complex system, showing how the individual school can plan for itself and make use of these resources. Western Washington developed careful linkages between the local education agency and the institution of higher education, thus reflecting a somewhat dependent relationship between these organizations as co-equal, collaborative partners. Fordham stressed the participation of the university and the professional organization in a school change plan, as the school was moving towards an open education environment, but required skilled assistance from the university. Vermont placed the local faculty squarely in the center of inservice planning, seeking to strengthen the ability of the teacher group to negotiate with both the local board and/or universities (or others) prepared to deliver services. The implications for the future of inservice in this respect are interesting. Many models of power brokerage appear able to lead to effective inservice planning. The key element, however, emerges as the individual faculty's ability to develop its own stance and to collaborate as an informed and co-equal partner in the planning process.

No development contract ever answers all needs and solves all problems, and so it si with these contracts. Several areas require additional attention. For example, the work on needs assessment for inservice was limited in each report. This condition could have reflected a feeling that the subject has been heavily stressed elsewhere and it was important to concentrate on other aspects of planning. But inservice needs were not sufficiently related to the needs of children within the participating school or based on a conceptualization of educational progress through the system. A "child study" approach to needs analysis and inservice design remains an important next step. Users of these reports may want to explore this area.

It had been hoped initially that models of inservice planning would emerge from the contracts. A model in this respect was understood as a finite set of procedures or elements defining the area of concern, accompanied by requisite materials, which would permit a more or less step-by-step definition of planning activities, usable by a total faculty within a single school site. It was hoped that inservice design could be generalized into some number of comprehensive and replicable alternative formats. Indeed, such models of inservice planning did not emerge from the contracts, and it seems too early in the state of the art to have held such expectations. Each contract, however, did analyze and present a process and materials which can be adapted to any single school site although the nature of the model will be governed by the design of the adaptation.

Readers of these reports, therefore, will find guidelines, materials, suggestions for procedures, and various sets of steps for planning inservice, but they will not find a model per se of the inservice process. The reports will provide support for local site planning and initiative. Specific materials or exercises may be selected to fit the context of a school initiated inservice plan based on faculty established needs and objectives. From these perspectives, the reports should prove to be extremely useful. A cross reference subject guide follows this introduction.

A follow-up activity is planned for the Inservice Development Process project. Another Request for Proposals is being prepared and will be distributed to X, XI, and XII cycle Teacher Corps sites. The purpose of this second procurement will be to encourage adaptations of the procedures and materials in these reports, to permit analysis of the inservice planning process, and to develop principles of organizational development related to inservice planning.

Related Inservice Planning Efforts*

There is a healthy proliferation of broad-based activites taking place around the nation related to inservice education -- examinations of the state of the art, needs, planning processes, criteria for programs, alternative delivery systems, networking, to name only a few. A fair summary of such activities would require time and space not appropriate to this publication. What follows is a sampling for the reader of some of the major efforts that are considering crucial problems and challenges facing us in inservice education.

- Current Teacher Corps projects are focusing major energies on demonstrating programs for retraining experienced educational personnel at their school sites. 117 projects across the country are individually responding to the new Teacher Corps retraining and demonstration mandates as well as integrating preservice preparation into collaborative programs that meet locally assessed needs. Each project experience as well as the collective experiences of regional and national networks will contribute a large number of tested approaches and data to the state of the art as well as offer new directions for the future.

- In addition to local project and regular regional network efforts, Teacher Corps is supporting a number of special projects in the area of inservice education. This publication is a presentation of final reports from one of those projects. A request for proposals to implement and evaluate the four inservice development processes presented herein is currently in process as a second phase to this effort.

- The Far West Teacher Corps network is presently coordinating a series of activities in the area of retraining teachers. A conference in 1975 resulted in a major publication, Rethinking Inservice Education,[1] that has been distributed nationally. The network has produced a pamphlet presenting 29 criteria for examining local inservice programs.[2] That and a forthcoming book entitled, Inservice Education: Examples of Criteria and Local Programs, integrate the results of a work conference held for member projects and professional organization representatives in 1976.

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* This section was prepared by Bambi Olmsted

- A third effort sponsored by Teacher Corps is the National Council of States on Inservice Education. The Council was created to provide a way for states to examine, discuss and disseminate information about inservice goals, training materials, and retraining strategies. There are presently 17 states involved in the project: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Vermont, and Washington. Liaison representatives from AACTE, AASA, AFT, ATE, NEA, and Teacher Corps Networks are also involved with the discussions and committee meetings. The Council conducts leadership training activities for its member states, publishes a monthly newsletter entitled INSERVICE, will publish monographs on inservice education issues that are of interest to State education agencies, and has conducted a national conference on State Action for Inservice Education, the proceedings of which will be available shortly.[3]

- Teacher Corps in cooperation with the National Center for Educational Statistics has sponsored a major study on Inservice Teacher Education (ISTE) coordinated by Bruce Joyce and Lucy Peck. The primary purposes of the study have been to determine data needs in the area which could be used as a base for successive studies and to conceptualize ISTE in such a way that Teacher Corps and the broader educational community can more effectively guide its activities. Data has been gathered from existing literature, "experts," and participating role groups in ISTE via questionnaires, interviews and literature searches. Five monographs currently are available on I. Issues to Face, II. Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers, III. The Literature on ISTE: An Analytic Review, IV. Creative Authority and Collaboration, and V. Cultural Pluralism and Social Change.[4] As a second phase to the study, teachers in Teacher Corps project schools will be asked to respond to a questionnaire on their needs and interests in inservice education. That is scheduled for fall 1977.

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[1] Rethinking Inservice Education - Roy A. Edelfelt, Margo Johnson, National Education Association 1975

[2] Inservice Education: Criteria for Local Programs - Roy A. Edelfelt, Far West Teacher Corps Network 1976

[3] From the National Dissemination Center at Syracuse University

[4] Ibid

- The five year experience of the USOE Urban/Rural School Development Program provides considerable data on the effects of formal joint (parity) efforts between schools and committees toward training educational personnel serving children in low income communities. This program was a bold and early step forward in inservice educational personnel development. The first phase of the program (23 sites) is reported by James Terry and Robert Hess in a January 1975 publication entitled The Urban/Rural School Development Program: An Examination of a Federal Model for Achieving Parity Between Schools and Communities.[5]

- The National Institute of Education is supporting a number of efforts that include inservice education components in an overall program of utilization of research and development. As one of those efforts the National Education Association is working with 60 local school districts in 12 states to help teachers make effective use of R&D based inservice training materials. A national clearinghouse of information on materials (with an "800" telephone number) and corresponding system of state facilitators is in the initial stages of operation linking classroom teachers and their self-determined needs to usable research based training products.

- The Group on School Capacity for Problem Solving in NIE supports a wide variety of projects many of which are focused on inservice training within their local contexts. Examples of these projects are the Minneapolis Teacher Center Extension Project which is working with a number of public schools and the University of Minnesota in staff development, An Exchange for and about Teachers' Centers which has organized an informal support network of teachers' centers across the country, and Extending School Capacity for Self Support of Open Education which supports N.Y. City open education teachers' staff development through an advisory approach and a workshop center. Each of these projects is exploring alternative modes of inservice education by developing local problem solving capacity.

Some additional resources of potential interest to the reader, each the product of a set of activities exploring aspects of inservice education, include the following:

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[5] Available from the School of Education, Stanford University.

National Symposium: Critical Issues in Teacher Inservice Education

Louis Rubin
University of Illinois
1975

Teachers Designed Reform in Inservice Education

Roy A. Edelfelt
Margo Johnson
January 1977 (final report to grant from
National Center for Educational Research
and Development, USOE)

Current Perspectives and Evolving Trends in Inservice Education in the United States

U.S./OECD Forum of Education
Organization Leaders, July 1976 prepared by
Kenneth R. Howey

Curriculum Development Through Inservice Education (forthcoming)

Association of Teacher Educators

Visions, Prototypes and Models in Teachers' Professional Growth (forthcoming)

National Council of States on Inservice
Education prepared by Louis Rubin

****

In Appreciation

The success of this contract activity depended on the efforts of a great many persons. The contractors and their staffs expended enormous effort in planning, studying, and reporting inservice activities and developing materials to reflect their approaches to some difficult problems in the field. The leadership and support provided by Bill Smith and Jim Steffensen facilitated the design and monitoring of the project and, indeed, made working on it a pleasure. Ellen Balko, the contracts officer, was especially helpful with the business of management of this complex activity. Bambi Olmsted, my colleague in the Development Branch, has worked closely with me, especially during the later stages of the project and on future plans, and she will provide continuity by assuming responsibility for the next phase, as I move from the Office of Education to a farm in Missouri (the better to contemplate inservice issues while developing a homestead operation). And while a great number of persons contributed ideas, suggestions, and comments to the project, my continuing dialogue with Dave Marsh, Assistant Professor at the University of Southern California, has provided wisdom and necessary correction to my judgements throughout this activity.

At the completion of the reports a panel of persons was assembled to review the contracts as a whole and to recommend probable uses of the end-products and possible next steps. The efforts of the following persons in this respect are appreciated: Gwendolyn Broyls, Jerome Clark, Kenneth Howey, Elaine Long, Dave Marsh, Anna Nuernberger, and Bambi Olmsted.

Walt Le Baron
Program Specialist
Development Branch
Teacher Corps

May 1977

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A Cross Reference to Major Topics Covered by the Inservice Development Process Reports

Prepared by Dave Marsh

TOPICS	ARLINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS	FORDHAM UNIVERSITY	WESTERN WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE	WASHINGTON WEST PUBLIC SCHOOLS
I. General Analysis of Inservice (definitions, overviewing rationale, types, historical context)	Introduction	1-8, 71-75	GM 4-6*, 10-11, 13-15	
II. Planning Models	133-231, (see especially the PIE Training Complex)		GM 4-55 IB whole PG whole	223-267 (note: emphasis on rural teacher centers).
II. Components of Planning Models				
Governance/Collaboration (decision making)	43-52, 59-60, 64-75, 93-106, 142-162	9-22, 33-46	GM 11-17 PG 14-15	180-183, 200-212
Funding/Resources	107		GM 17-18 PG 21-22	118-147
including roles for:				
- teachers		220-238	GM 15-17 PG 19-20	
- teacher organizations	53	11-14		
- principals	42-65, 112-114, 219	205-219		
- school district administration	220	23-32		171-175, 184-185, 189-199
- school boards	54			170-179
- state departments		17-18		136-137, 213-222
- IHE's	101	15-17, 33-46, 82-102, 239-249		96-117, 130
- community	103-105, 171	47-59	GM 23-24	72-81

TOPICS	ARLINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS	FORDHAM UNIVERSITY	WESTERN WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE	WASHINGTON WES PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Establishing Purpose				22-52
(including:				
-analyzing organizational and political situations	1-40, 64-75, 133-174	60-70, 123-133 149-160	GM 9-20 PG 8-13, 16-18	12-21, 53-63, 186-188
-relating ISTE to conception of teaching, schooling				5-7, 82-90 64-71
Conducting Needs Assessment/Defining Content		103-122	GM 21-25	91-95
Defining Instructional Approaches	Part IV (under separate cover)	75-78, 82-106, 161-174, 175-191	GM 25-26 PG 25-26	148-169
Staffing (including use of local talent)		51-52, 161-174	GM 26-27	
Incentives, rewards for training	56-58, 76-92, 166-170	192-204	GM 18-19 PG 23-24	
Released Time	106-107			
Training Materials	Part IV (under separate cover)			
Evaluation and Monitoring		220-238	GM 28-29, 44-59	
IV. Case Studies				
Planning/Conducting ISTE	114-131, 133-231	entire monograph	GM 31-43	

GM – Generic Model Monograph

IB – Informational Booklet

PG – Planning An Inservice Program: A Process Guide

THE URBAN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION EXPERIENCE

Contract 300-76-0304

Fordham University

Sheldon Marcus	Editors
John B. Poster	
Jay S. Sexter	
Myrna Cooper	Educational Consultant
Maurice Leiter	Editorial Consultant

1977

Dedicated to John Garafalo
for giving so much to the
children, staff and parents
of the Angelo Patri School.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS i

INTRODUCTION iii

COLLABORATING IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: A TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE
Myrna Cooper 1

CHANGING AND EMERGING ROLES IN EDUCATION: THE ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT
Theodore Wiesenthal 23

SOME SECOND THOUGHTS: A DEAN'S REAPPRAISAL OF THE UNIVERSITY'S ROLE IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION
Jonathan Messerli 33

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INTERACTION
Sheldon Lindenbaum 47

OPEN EDUCATION AS AN ALTERNATIVE
Fred W. Goldberg 60

DESIGNING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION
Stephen I. Leitman 71

ADAPTING COLLEGE COURSES FOR ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION
Claire Ashby-Davis 82

PROFESSIONAL STAFF NEEDS ASSESSMENT: A DISCREPANCY ANALYSIS
John B. Poster 103

SCHOOL DESIGN AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS
Muriel R. Vogel 123

LAKE COMO TO FROST VALLEY: AN IN-SERVICE "LIFESHOP"
John Garafalo and Cologero Marasca 139

STUDENTS' ROLE IN QUALITY EDUCATION
Ronny Neira, Maria Valencia, Bryan Putman,
Melvin Munoz, Anna M. Otero, John Arroyo,
with Dr. Michael Laboda 149

THE SCHOOL-BASED TRAINER OF TEACHERS
Arline Weisberg 161

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: ITS GOALS AND STRATEGIES
Jacqueline Ancess 175

INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION
Steven Wagner and Myrna Cooper 192

THE SUPERVISOR AS SCHOOL INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER
Sol Press 205

TEACHER EVALUATION - A TEACHER UNIONIST'S VIEW
Sandra Feldman 220

THE URBAN MISSION OF THE UNIVERSITY
Sheldon Marcus and Jay Sexter 239

CONTRIBUTORS 250

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- to Myrna Cooper and Maurice Leiter whose judgement, expertise and hard work made the final product possible;
- to Dr. Theodore Wiesenthal, Community Superintendent, and Dr. Fred Goldberg, Deputy Superintendent, for their vision and accessibility, and to the District 10 staff, for its ready assistance;
- to the United Federation of Teachers, for its cooperation in this project;
- to Community School Board 10 whose members' professionalism make working in District 10 pleasurable;
- to John Garafalo, principal of The Angelo Patri School, for giving his all to make I.S. 137X a school of which the community is proud;
- to the staff and students of Angelo Patri who deserve special thanks for their dedication and good will in the face of our impositions;
- to Dean Jonathan Messerli and Associate Dean Anthony Mottola of Fordham's School of Education, for facilitating this volume and to Rev. James Finlay, S.J., President of Fordham University, for his personal interest in the success of the Angelo Patri School;
- To Dr. Marie Barry, National Teachers Corps program monitor, a source of continuing inspiration to all who

have been associated with this project and to Dr. Walt LeBaron, National Teacher Corps contract officer for providing the impetus necessary to complete this project in the face of many difficulties;

- to Adele Larschan and Muriel Vogel for their numerous editorial contributions to this volume;
- to Anthony Vilhotti, Susan Carroll Peet and Grace Troyano for expert administrative performance and to Barbara Gates and Pura Justiniano whose typing, under an omnipresent deadline, prevented many a headache;
- to all above, our heartfelt appreciation.

S.M.
J.P.
J.S.
Fordham University
1977

INTRODUCTION

What lies before you is a document on the history of cooperative educational enterprises, born out of adverse circumstance, compelling need and a commitment to solutions. It is a record of some of the ideas, practices, and processes which, through its in-service component, have given vitality and aspiration to the open space-open education human experience at the Angelo Patri School, I.S. 137X. The book contains both story and theory, and taken as a whole creates a circle of reality made up of the voices and perceptions of on-site faculty, administrators, teacher organization, university personnel and students.

On April 30, 1969 the New York State Legislature passed a school decentralization law for New York City. Thirty-one community school districts were created (later thirty-two). Each district was to have a locally elected school board which would exercise policy-making power within prescribed limits, over the elementary, intermediate and junior high schools within its jurisdiction. The community school districts began operations July 1, 1970.

During this period, New York City continued its historic mission of receiving and educating minority groups. Migrants from Puerto Rico and the South arrived in the City, settling in large numbers in the Bronx, Brooklyn and parts of Manhattan, changing the area's demographic profile and offering new challenges to local schools. The first District 10 community school board and its president, Father Mario Zicarelli, and Dr. Theodore Wiesenthal (who became superintendent in late 1970), were attracted to open education, and schools without walls as vehicles for individualizing instruction and for focusing humanistic educational efforts.

A study group of elementary school teachers was formed to create a pilot open classroom program for the district which by 1972 was projected for expansion from the elementary school to the junior high level. The shifting population of the Bronx increased enrollment in schools in the western and northern parts of the borough. The Central Board of Education had already decided to build a new school on Webster Avenue, and agreed that it would be the city's most ambitious open education structure. The original study group of teachers, advising the architects and the Board's Division of School Buildings helped to plan the environment in which many of them would later work.

Subsequent presidents of the District 10 school board, Alfred Lignon, Dr. Robert Christen, and Sylvia Bloom, as well as the boards themselves, maintained district support for the open education concept. In 1973, the district joined with the United Federation of Teachers and Fordham University in obtaining funding for an eighth cycle Teacher Corps (TAMC) proposal in on-site pre-service training to be directed by Dr. Anthony

Vilhotti.

Despite the citywide financial crisis, local funding reductions, staff losses, and accelerating urban unrest, the district went ahead with plans to open the new open education school. The Teacher Corps TAMC Program had become invaluable to the hard-pressed school district. Dr. Marie Barry, the program monitor and an expert in special education, provided assistance in the development of TAMC special education services. Almost inevitably, the idea of linking Teacher Corps to the new school emerged. A tenth cycle Teacher Corps proposal, developed with the cooperation of the already existent Teacher Corps executive committee in District 10 and an advisory committee made up of representatives from the parents association, the teachers' union, the interns, the team leaders, the university, the district office, and the principal, and emphasizing in-service education for individualization of instruction, was approved to function under the direction of Dr. Jay Sexter.

Before the school building was ready for occupancy (an occupancy to be delayed months beyond the anticipated opening date of September, 1975) a faculty was assembled under principal John Garofalo. While there was not yet a building, the school did have a name. Dr. Angelo Patri had been a legendary principal in the Bronx, a man who touched many lives. He had been particularly successful with disadvantaged Italian and Jewish youth of immigrant parents. Older community residents revered Dr. Patri's memory. Most New York schools are referred to by number, but in the Bronx it isn't necessary to remember the number of the Angelo Patri School.

Thirty teachers, the principal and Teacher Corps personnel attended a workshop at Lake Como, New York in the summer of 1975 to begin the task of preparing to function in a sixteen hundred student open classroom school.

Reversal followed reversal. In September 1975, the task of opening the school was made even more difficult when the New York City schools suffered massive teacher layoffs resulting from the city's financial crisis. Some of the less senior Aneglo Patri teachers were lost to the school system. Their places on the 70 member staff were taken by teachers who had not attended the preparatory conferences and were therefore not as knowledgeable about open education. To help hold the faculty together, Dr. Barry helped the faculty obtain a Teacher Corps budget modification for a conference and workshops in December 1975 at Frost Valley, New York. Meanwhile, the parents formed an aggressive organization and the community school board joined this group in pressing the Urban Development Corporation (UDC) to turn over the school to the New York City Board of Education without immediate payment of the 14 million dollar contractual price which the city did not have. Principal Garafalo learned at Frost Valley that the UDC had relented and his faculty would have a school in January, 1976.

The school building was beautiful and frightening. An experienced classroom teacher walking in the door and arriving at the instructional level was struck by the fact that there were no doors, no walls, and no classrooms as such. There were areas and clusters. The responsibility for adapting the curriculum to the Humanities, Performing Arts, and Environmental Arts areas and then to individualized student packages fell to the teachers, to the teacher-trainers, and the district curriculum personnel.

The teachers developed their training by submitting ideas to John Garafalo and the learning manager, Cologero Marasca. When a consensus had been reached, the principal met with the UFT chapter chairman of the school, Steven Wagner, and together, they reached agreement on the training program. In addition, Fordham faculty and Teacher Corps collaborated in the development of the Angelo Patri Adult Education Center which provided on-site courses creditable to Fordham's undergraduate programs.

All participants were able to choose from a variety of on-site courses permitting wide curriculum choice for credit toward appropriate degrees. These on-site courses were revised to satisfy the needs of staff members and interns.

Because of continuing staff changes, teachers more familiar with open education assisted teachers recently transferred into the school. The teacher as teacher-trainer concept was formalized in the Teacher Corps program. A modular school schedule was designed by Garofalo and Marasca which included three "mods" a day for in-service education. The staff spent time in after-school activities including planning a resource center and meeting parents in the community room.

Unfortunately, additional personnel cuts in Fall, 1976 led to the layoff of several staff members who had weathered the school's first year. Again, teachers unfamiliar with open education were transferred into the school making even more urgent the design and modification of existing in-service training programs.

Through all these crises of building delays, staff losses, unfamiliar surroundings and a difficult new alternative educational structure, faculty, district staff and university met and confronted the concrete daily challenges of educating effectively with zeal, a sense of unity and a determination to hammer out solutions through conference and consensus.

The common thread which characterized the school and runs through this volume is a commitment to change, a spirit of cooperation and shared responsibility, a dedication to work and a capacity for facing issues and seeking joint resolution of problems. The range of topics covered here bring in almost every aspect of in-service education especially as it relates to open education. Each article represents a separate thread in the cloth of cooperation woven at the school site. Its texture is enriched by contributions from those outside the school, for one of the project's considerable accomplishments has been the establishment of a climate of trust and support between school and university personnel.

The reader will find here helpful concrete discussions and examples on teacher training, curriculum development, in-service program design, community relations, in-service workshops, on-site university courses, open space education stragegies, and needs assessment as well as useful explorations of incentives for in-service training, supervisory roles in instruction, teacher evaluation, student response to open education, open education as an alternative, and significant examinations of the collaborative in-service approach as seen by a teacher, unionist, a superintendent, a university dean and two university professors active in urban education.

The use of this volume, of course, is the individual privilege of each reader but a few suggestions are in order. No two faculties, facilities, school populations or list of educational priorities are the same. Given the uniqueness of each situation, the editors feel that extraction from this volume is preferable to emulation; that the article should function germinally rather than architecturally. Each project involving human interaction is a new planting, a thing which lives, not an immutable and strong edifice.

The Navajos have the way of it. When they weave a rug, they leave a thread trailing from the finished product so that they will neither offend the gods by imitating their perfection, nor allow evil to move out of the object.

We have a third purpose. We offer a thread that trails from the source. This modest effort, in the human way, will not tempt the gods by its perfection, but it has been made in the absence of evil. We trust that the thread which we trail will be picked up by more corporeal beings who, in so doing, will make their own peace with perfection.

x

COLLABORATING IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION:
A TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE

Myrna Cooper

SCOPE

To appreciate the promise inherent in a wholesome collaborative approach to in-service teacher education, it is helpful to understand why it is necessary, how monolithic approaches to in-service education fall short of the mark, what obstacles already have been erected to make collaboration difficult, what problems must be solved to achieve successful collaboration, and what attitudes among collaborators will create the right environment for the collaborative effort. That, broadly, is the scope of this paper.

The author fully recognizes and values the merits of the collaborative project generated at the Angelo Patri School and the reader will, no doubt, gain much knowledge and insight from the many chapters in this book which treat of that project specifically. Nevertheless, there are many important general aspects to the issue of in-service training and collaboration which require consideration, and an overview will, it is hoped, put the situation into perspective and aid those who are similarly engaged elsewhere.

THE NEED FOR IN-SERVICE

It is not inappropriate to suggest that the insufficiency of the pre-service teacher education makes the need for effective in-service teacher education compelling. Being a teacher is a process far more dynamic than becoming one and vastly different. To paraphrase Heraclitus: you never step into the same classroom twice.

To assimilate change, to confront the day to day "crisis" which is the classroom, to rejuvenate the forgotten, to create the never-learned, to systematize coping, to reduce groping are some of the reasons that bring the practicing teacher to one or the other of the existing in-service delivery systems.

The practicing teacher, however, is not likely to find most prevailing in-service systems adequate, appropriate or relevant. Moreover, the current systems are unable to assimilate the philosophical, methodological, legal, environmental, and experimental changes which have occurred in education. Therefore, before turning to examine the organism of collaboration for in-service, it will be illuminating to look at the existing systems designed to yield a significant product for teachers who need or seek ongoing training to point up the deficiencies of these unilateral (and sometimes monolithic) structures and, thus, to be in a better position to evaluate the collaborative alternative.

TYPES OF DELIVERY SYSTEMS AND SHORTCOMINGS

Basically, there are three in-service delivery systems: college courses, staff development programs, and teacher centers as they are now constituted.

College courses are the most common type of in-service education. In addition to the more idealistic motive of self-improvement which brings teachers back to school, study at "approved" institutions of higher learning is used by teachers to earn advanced degrees, to fulfill state requirements for permanent certification and for increment credit leading to enhancement of income.

One problem with college courses is that the academician has his own bailiwick or special interest and tends to impose it on a course whose title may have led the unsuspecting credit seeker to anticipate something more pertinent to his needs. Often, this is because the instructor produces course content based upon that with which he is comfortable. In other words, the college does not deliver what it appears to have promised and the result for the practicing teacher as student is an experience neither needed nor desired.

Another difficulty is that, often, the content of the college course is antiquated and has little relationship to the real world of the pedagogue. Generally, this is because the curriculum has fallen behind the body of knowledge in the field or was developed to confront problems which are no longer central to the practitioner's task. In addition, individual courses compartmentalize the study of methods, content, child development, and learning theory while the need to synthesize these components in the classroom is precisely what has brought the teacher to the campus. The result is that college courses are rarely designed for or effective in improving the classroom teacher's ability to achieve maximum success in dealing with the actuality of daily life in the classroom.

The second major in-service delivery system is school district staff development. Such training is, largely, intended to support the programmatic needs of the system and its scope is, for the most part, determined by school administrators. Often, it deals with projects of the bandwagon variety (in this connection, the federal government which provides primarily short-term funding for projects is a culpable partner in the process). For example, the adoption of a new reading program may be directly preceded by the training and preparation of staff for the program (often, this species of program imposition takes place concurrent with the staff development component either because the funding might otherwise run out or because a school board election is in the offing and the district attempts to adopt an activist instructional posture).

The next school year may find the program materials relegated to storage as school administrators change or a new program becomes the vogue or no one is left on site to continue the program or the district resumes its futile search for a magic method or material which will make learning teacher-proof.

Where staff development training is not exclusively programmatic, it is likely to be reflective of a propensity among boards of education to react most favorably to a deficiency definition of in-service. It is closely linked to vague notions of teacher evaluation and accountability. Little thought is given by those who happen to be in authority to educational measures which will build on the strengths which a teacher already possesses or give that teacher an additional repertoire of skills and broaden her perspective. Consequently, while in-service staff development by school districts may be occasionally effective in introducing new programs, the impact on teacher performance is dubious.

Teacher centers are a new in-service form which, because of their limited sponsorship, have not yet addressed themselves to the needs of the profession broadly. Generally, teacher centers are places outside the school where teachers come on a voluntary basis to share and exchange ideas, to experiment with curricula, and to develop materials. Their purpose is to improve the teacher's classroom performance and to, in turn, upgrade the quality of education through the support and enrichment derived from the center.

There are some indications that teacher centers have resulted in the introduction of more enriched programs, and creative teaching ideas. However, most participants have been teachers whose personal approach to teaching has been consistent with such innovations. In other words, there have been few converts due to teacher centers, and the centers have, almost uniformly, espoused a single point of view.

While the point of view has been a progressive one, it has not led to improvements in teaching which would not have occurred in any event. The appeal and effectiveness of teacher centers has been limited to relatively few teachers whose viewpoints were already compatible. More importantly, they have not served teachers who have more conventional approaches. The result is that teacher centers have had only a limited impact on teacher performance generally because the progressives have been talking only to themselves.

CURRENT SYSTEMS UNRESPONSIVE TO CHANGE

Still another way of understanding the deficiencies of inservice delivery systems, is to consider their capacity to function as responsive mechanisms for change in the educational order; whether this change be environmental (social and school conditions), methodological (new math, open classroom), theoretical (learning disability research, humanistic education) or experimental (impact of teacher expectations, interaction analysis).

Here are some fleshier examples:

(1) Bilingual education and mainstreaming of handicapped children: both are legislatively mandated obligations which have profoundly affected the classroom and the teacher. Common

sense would indicate the need for intensive training of educational personnel prior to the implementation of programs of such significance. However, the regulations which explicate these policies seem to gloss over this important fundamental step, making only vague references to in-service teacher training. The possibility of program failure is thereby substantially increased. Ironically, teachers, not the legislators, will be blamed should things go wrong.

(2) Learning disability theory: During the period of initial training of most teachers, the body of knowledge now available in the area did not exist. Clearly, it should be a basic delivery responsibility of in-service education to make such theory available. After all, responsible estimates suggest that as many as one in five of the pupils in ordinary classrooms may be learning disabled. Yet, most teachers don't know much about the subject because research accumulated over more than a decade is only sparsely reflected in the few superficial offerings available to practicing teachers through in-service education. The delivery system has failed to generate the recognition of the subject's importance or to create meaningful and organic vehicles for the transfer of research into practice.

(3) Metrics: This nation is currently in the process of a massive shift to the metric system. It's happening before our eyes. Yet, there is no organized, substantial and universal

effort within education to make teachers functional in metrics. If teachers are left to be metrically illiterate, what great shock wave will be set off when it is suddenly noticed ten years hence that Johnny can't measure. Where have all the in-service systems gone?

(4) Open classroom: This promising approach has had more attention because of innovative appeal than because of its inherent value in promoting learning. Had the in-service systems provided proper training and ongoing support to those wishing to use this approach, we might now have a view of it both less cynical and more reality-based.

These examples and innumerable others that each reader can undoubtedly call to mind reveal that in-service systems are less responsive than the society in which they exist. However, isn't an in-service system heavy with shortcomings still better than none at all? To the practicing teacher, whose pre-service preparation of "basic" courses and one-shot student teaching has made the entry into the classroom (generally without support or supportive personnel to help) an experience of frustration, stress, and lonely struggle as the neophyte battles to become a seasoned veteran, it is not helpful or terribly responsible to continue a reflexive set of approaches which at their best yield a salary increment and at their worst nurture cynicism and the feeling that low aspiration is, at least, easier to live with.

OBSTACLES TO COLLABORATION

The available literature on in-service collaboration (stemming generally from experience in performance-based teacher education--wherein groups "consorted" instead of collaborating) tends to devote itself largely to learned excursions into negotiations among parties, political motivation, niceties of governance formulas, and quasi-psychoanalytic pronouncements on what the participants must give in order to get as if the process were akin to marriage counseling or sex therapy. The impression one has after examining the various monographs by educators who have been sufficiently inspired (or funded) to give their views is that process is more important than purpose (cf. Jerome Bruner in New Society, 4/29/76, wherein he criticizes "the curious habit, in educational philosophers, of obliterating the distinction...between what we wish to achieve and how to go about achieving it." As Bruner sees it applied by educational progressives "ends become means," but it would perhaps be more exact to suggest that means are the ends as is the case in progressivism and in the commentaries on collaborative or consortial teacher-training enterprises).

What has happened is that even before the blossom of collaboration has seen the sun of realization the field lies heavy with red flags and warning signals. Those who would make noble attempts to join together to make teachers more effective in their work are discouraged from the effort. If they do get involved, it is with a sense of foreboding and a conviction that failure is likely. Such attitudes are really the inventions of individuals and institutions who have a stake in failure, who are perpetuated in their activities by maintaining in education a state of frustration heretofore enjoyed only by Sisyphus in his eternal struggle to get the marble block up the hill.

The impact of these attitudes is that few really believe in collaboration out of fear that its success may mean the resolution of "convenient" educational difficulties and the attendant loss of sovereignty, control, authority, or just plain attention for one or the other of the inhabitants of the educational establishment. Clearly, then, individuals and groups involved with in-service collaboration will need to disregard the negativism that has preceded them to the scene. They will have to forego the luxury of treating the process as an exclusively political challenge with gain for one's side as a primary goal.

We do know what the real goal of collaboration is and that goal is consistent with the tenets of a democratic society which has as its theoretical foundation the fullest realization of the capacities and potentialities of each individual. In seeking to fashion a method of making teachers better able to realize their own abilities and transmit the fruits of this self-fulfillment to students in the form of an education which enables them to comprehend existence, function within complex social structures, and do so in a feeling and responsive way, we move in the mainstream of the best impulses our society has to offer.

Collaboration is, after all, a process of participatory democracy, an effort to achieve a parity of involvement in a practical area of education. It brings with it the assumption that such equity and community in a professional endeavor will yield a purer result, one which will not only have wider acceptance but also greater impact in the classroom.

TEACHER ORGANIZATIONS AS COLLABORATORS

Historically, the collaborative effort has been hampered by the tendency of S.E.D.,L.E.A, and universities to exclude teacher organizations and teachers from joint efforts to develop in-service programs. The teacher has been denied equal partnership. School districts and universities have found it uncomfortable to face the fact that teachers are legitimized by their organization in the same way as a Dean of Education is legitimized by being a dean within a specific institution, in the same way that a Deputy Superintendent for Instruction has no legitimacy except as an employed agent of a particular school district.

Additionally, elitism and paternalism (the first, a characteristic syndrome of institutions of higher education, the second, a not uncommon attitude on management and policy levels of school districts) have created serious obstacles to the acceptance of the practicing elementary or secondary school teacher as a partner worthy of equality in educational planning. Furthermore, teacher organizations, because they function as adversaries to management in negotiating on behalf of their members, have been regarded, by extension, as adversaries in efforts to improve the level of teacher preparation and in-service training.

Such a view defies history and logic. Unions, including teacher unions, have always made membership education an organic part of their mission. The improvement of the status of members has always been tied to training and education for advancement, for mobility, for better performance and morale on the job, and for personal fulfillment. From a practical point of view a teacher union benefits from the existence of a profession with high standards for entry and service, wherein its members are successful and productive because they are good at what they do, wherein they are well-treated and esteemed because of their accomplishments, and wherein opportunities for pecuniary and role enhancement through experience and further training are objectively available. Such "working" conditions make for a stable membership, one which requires less expense to service for negative reasons such as unsatisfactory ratings, one which is responsive to the organization which helped create the stable professional climate, and one which the organization can then service positively by placing its resources more and more into areas of professional concern. No teacher organization has a stake in failure.

In acting out its historical role, the teacher organization has firmly established itself as the appropriate source and "legitimizer" of the professional views of teachers. Teachers trust those who represent them more readily than they trust those who rate them. They identify more easily with their own organization (which has lived through their trials with them) than with a degree-granting institution whose faculty does not share their daily risks. Finally, teachers have confidence in their organization because they participate in its policy development and because they recognize that their own efforts in the classroom have been reflected in the way their organization values them as professionals.

Current developments, then, have brought bona fide collaboration closer. Enlightened administrators and academic institutions now appreciate the role of the teacher organization in professional matters and its capacity to generate teacher participation. They know that success depends on the teacher and that the teacher will, in turn, look to his organization to channel his involvement.

The new federal legislation on Teacher Centers which is designed to foster collaboration in in-service education will also have an important catalytic effect. It makes the teacher central to the Center in development and governance and thus functions as a response to and recognition of the new role and image which teacher unionism has given to teachers.

BENEFITS TO UNIVERSITY AND LEA

Having established the pertinence and centrality of teachers and their organization to in-service collaboration, one ought to identify how the Local Education Agency and the university benefit from their full involvement.

For the LEA, teacher-school district-college collaboration provides the best opportunity to resolve the classic training problem: the conflict between the needs of the system and the needs of the individual. The collaborative process is structurally capable of achieving not only a balance between these often opposite thrusts but of developing creative congruences between them so that both system and individual are simultaneously served.

Additionally, for each LEA, there will be an increased access through the higher education institution to what is happening elsewhere in education, for the college functions as the natural repository and conduit for developments in the field. Similarly, the interaction with the outside world will permit more accurate appreciation of what teachers accomplish locally and greater dissemination of these accomplishments through university publication and reporting. The LEA will, thus, achieve a reduction of the provincialism so inescapable in the isolation of an LEA from the larger currents of educational activity.

A most important benefit for an LEA will be the opportunity to free the district structure from the pernicious and bureaucratic business model under which most districts now labor. By gaining a more intellectual appreciation of the complexity of learning delivery and teacher-training through a collaborative exchange, the district may be freed from the shackles of the idea that education is a manufactured product wherein $2 of expenditures affects two points on achievement test scores. Once liberated, education may again be child-learning centered rather than systems-centered.

Ironically, the cost-effectiveness of the district may be enhanced by abandoning narrow and political cost-conscious practices, for a better in-service delivery will yield a better long-range knowledge delivery to children, a more stable staff wherein the investment in salary functions in constant rather than erratic relation to accomplishment, and a generally broader base of available options, offering, and experiments through generated funding of projects accruing to the collaborative process.

Colleges, too, have much to gain as well as give. Faced with declining enrollment, collaborative arrangements provide opportunities for the college to develop a student body at the source through in-service activities within the school district. By going into the field, higher education institutions open up a remarkable range of possibilities for service to the public as well as themselves. Such activity will permit them to exercise a profound and continuous influence on the profession through training, education, experimentation, and publication. The school can become a true laboratory and the educational process a genuinely scientific activity wherein growth accompanies application, with testing and verification of learning hypotheses emerging from a dynamic collaboration with practitioners. Given an array of outcomes of value, the college, which will have gained in prestige by extending its influence into the classroom and by risking its social and philosophical convictions at the site of educational delivery, will achieve additional prestige by being able to demonstrate success.

The result will not only support the college economically through funding opportunities developed in collaboration and through the employment of its professional staff in shared in-service projects, but will also create for the college of education its best chance to function in a professional context comparable to the field of medicine wherein the institution provides the professional link that binds the on-going practice of the craft on the job, in field experimentation, in the laboratory, and in the training of pre-service, intern, and in-service personnel.

ROLE OF STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

It is appropriate at this point to briefly comment on the contribution that a State Department of Education should be expected to make to collaborative efforts within its jurisdiction, particularly in light of the general authority given to them to accept or reject Teacher Center proposals developed for federal funding under the earlier-mentioned new legislation.

SED's have a responsibility and concern for maintenance of quality instructional levels and the improvement of teacher capability through in-service education, but, too often, they have either been passive supporters of efforts to develop effective training approaches or else have functioned in a rigid bureaucratic fashion by mandating certain "standards" without particular regard for the impact of their mandates on schools, teachers, and children or sufficient consideration of the difficulties of implementation and execution which the mandates involve. Above all, they rarely put their money where their mandates are, and their judgmental propensities are more carnal than their physical capacities.

However, SED's can make several useful contributions consistent with their ostensible mission:

1) They can legitimize the in-service education collaboration;
2) They can encourage and fund helpful research in education;

3) They can document collaborative activities;

4) They can describe and research collaborative models;

5) They can disseminate information on models, educational research, accomplishments of collaboratively developed, in-service programs;

6) They can serve as a financial resource in some or all respects;

7) They can reward collaboration and, particularly, collaboration which succeeds.

Certainly such facilitating assistance in so significant an area as in-service is no more than it is reasonable to expect. Of course, in-service collaboration can succeed without bureaucratic assistance just as teachers often succeed without staff development programs or supportive supervisors.

HOW TO COLLABORATE

What emerges from this examination of in-service education modes and some of the undercurrents affecting in-service collaboration is the awareness that the key to success will most likely lie in the attitude of the collaborators toward themselves, each other, and the task at hand.

This author believes that participants should enter collaboration laughing, not scheming and offers a few suggestions here which may be helpful to those wishing to collaborate:

1. Recognize that you are so bad at trying to survive alone that the prospect of having company will, at least, be

a consolation. In any case, three heads are better than one.

2. Identify the real enemy. It is those who want free public education to fail, not that "reactionary" school district or that "geriatric" college or that "greedy" teacher organization.

3. Credit your collaborator with the same commitment of the total resources of his group that you bring yourself.

4. Tell the truth about your self-interest so that everyone can relax.

5. Say what you hold most sacred and would rather not sacrifice. Offer to give something up as evidence of good faith.

6. Remember that the purpose of collaboration is teacher education and increased delivery to students,not funding or self-perpetuation of the participants.

7. Respect the other group's expertise as crucial to the success of the whole as much because it is unlike yours as for any reason (would you all seek to bring the same dish to the pot-luck supper?).

8. Realize that getting things done is far more satisfying than arguing and jockeying about who's not going to do what. The willingness is all.

9. Comprehend that parity within collaboration may yield equality of participation but should not result in sameness in the functions performed--the three heads are better because

they're different.

10. Expect collaboration to create a structure for dealing with the in-service task but don't make promises to history that will haunt you--you may not change the face of education but you will clear up the acne.

WHY COLLABORATE?

The commitment to collaboration can yield a range of benefits for in-service education that can ultimately extend beyond the in-service training realm to affect all aspects of training, delivery, and evaluation.

As a creative mechanism, the collaborative structure will enable educators to be responsive to future needs and to accommodate modes of in-service yet to be in a framework free of the parochial encumbrance of one confining educational notion or philosophy.

It will enable all participants to gain an increment from the in-service experience making natural the recognition that teachers are not the only ones who can benefit from professional development.

It will permit the assimilation into the in-service domain of the significant reservoir of talent available beyond the three major participants (e.g., museums, child psychiatrists, art therapists, researchers), and, by placing the process within the mainstream of educational thought and development, can give a sense of continuity to education. For example, researchers can be harnessed to serve the requirements of the collaborative endeavor rather than their own interests.

The natural style of collaboration, as it is here envisaged, is one of openness and a policy of inclusion rather than exclusion. Anyone with a professional stake should be able to contribute. The pressure and influence of participants on each other creates perspective and sharpens focus on the challenges to be met. Interaction functions to assimilate conflict and transmute it into change-enabling resolution.

The unity of educators in collaboration will enhance the economic viability of in-service education and provide a vehicle for justifying in-service to government, the public, and those for whom the structure exists.

Many of you will recall the Japanese story, Rashomon, in which an investigation of a murder yields the not surprising but nevertheless fascinating discovery that each witness to an event perceives that event differently from every other witness. Reality becomes a function of the perceiver, an insight not unlike what we face in the variety of conceptions characteristic of current views of in-service education.

Each deliverer of in-service education (college, district, teacher) fails because of the inescapable handicap of seeing only a part of the challenge (and the opportunity), just as each witness to an event is limited by his inability to see that event in the totality, that is, the sum of the perceptions of the participants. In-service education can only be made whole if a means is found to expand the limits of unilateral perception by the integration of all points of view, a training "in the round" so to speak. That, dear reader, is what collaboration can do for you.

CHANGING AND EMERGING ROLES IN EDUCATION:
THE ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

Theodore Wiesenthal

At this time when public confidence in urban school leadership seems to be shaken, it becomes necessary to reassess the role of the school superintendent. A poorly defined role, in the long run, results in educational disaster.

Apologists are overly concerned with what is happening to the superintendents rather than what is taking place with the children within the school districts. Too many are satisfied with the portrayal of the superintendent's role as one of a politician interested only in personal day to day survival. It is maintained that the relationship and responsibilities of the superintendent, the School Board, unions and the community sometimes are ill defined, resulting in conflict and inevitable confrontations. Many writers in the field of education call for a restructuring of State responsibilities and the nature of School Board involvement if the school superintendent is to be able to fulfill his role. With all of the existing problems, many urban school superintendents, with a realistic view of the present and future, are proceeding to develop a superintendent's role to meet the challenge of the times.

It is time to reaffirm that the superintendent is in "business," after all is said and done, to make certain that the most effective education possible is provided for every child under his care. All planning, organization, finances and leadership have to be focused toward this one goal. This is true whether the district has 3000 pupils or 30,000 pupils.

According to the American Association of School Administrators, the average superintendent gives from 20-25 percent of his day to matters related directly to instruction. Many superintendents, however, who view their roles differently, spend as much as half of each day visiting schools. If the visits are seen as opportunities to provide assistance and inspirational leadership, there is quite often less necessity to spend the superintendent's time in solving educational crises and discussing what might have been done.

In the Teacher Corps publication, Documentation (June 1976), Harry Rivlin, former Dean of Fordham University's School of Education, speculated on Immanuel Kant's statement that we should treat every individual as an end in himself and not as a means to an end. Rivlin wonders "what would happen if every principal were to treat every teacher as though that teacher were not only a means to an end, but an end in himself. While I am wondering, I wonder too, what would happen if every teacher treated every child not as a means to an end, but as someone who is an end in himself." I would like to add to Rivlin's speculation - what would happen if every superintendent were to treat every principal as though that principal were not only a means to an end, but an end in himself.

It is often said that schools are democratic institutions. We should then be involved in dignifying the worth of the individual. There should be opportunities for children to have a voice in school policies which affect their welfare. Many school systems are proud of their attempts to open dialogues with high school students. Other districts have gone beyond that and have organized student organizations from kindergarten through the grades. There should be opportunities for supervisors and classroom teachers to have a role in developing policies which affect the learning process. Parents should have a meaningful role as partners in the educational system with a full voice in assisting in the development of educational policies which affect their children. Clearly, a well-functioning school district and a responsive community are, to a large extent, dependent on a feeling on the part of parents and students that the school is accessible to them, that the practices of the school are flexible and attuned to their expressed needs, and the direction and policy of the school is amenable to reasonable and bona fied suggestions for change and modification.

The time has long since gone when a superintendent could establish policy for a district unilaterally. If indeed it ever existed, it was never a good idea.

Parents and community organizations are seeking more and more information and involvement. Parents should be involved in more than cake sales, the taking of school pictures, the raising of money through the sale of candy. Parents can and have made dramatic contributions. The superintendent today has an expanding role which involves consultation with parents with regard to administrative policies which affect their children.

Presidents' councils and forums have been established in many districts which prepare workshops for parents in an effort to keep parents informed of changing methods of education, new curriculum, problems with budget, etc. The development of resource bulletins for parent use in helping children develop reading and mathematics skills have proved to be most valuable. A well-informed group of parents helps to promote confidence in the district's aims and objectives and the educational program needed for the fulfillment of these aims and objectives. Parents should be aware of district involvement with universities so that their support and aid can be enlisted in various programs. The superintendent should be aware of the need to confer with parents in order to help to decide policies that relate to teacher and pupil welfare.

In an attempt to reach the goals of providing the most effective education possible for every child under the superintendent's care there must be involvement with the teachers in the district. Nothing takes the place of the superintendent's interest, motivation, support and concern. The problem for the urban school superintendent is that he often has a staff of over 1200 teachers. There are opportunities nevertheless when real meaningful involvement with teachers should take place.

One of the areas that can be explored is the superintendent's role in releasing the creativity of teachers as true professionals. Teachers must be encouraged to develop ideas for the professional growth of themselves and their colleagues. The best workshops and teacher resource booklets have been developed by the teachers who are using them. It is an old, but wise axiom that those who are going to do the doing must themselves have done the planning. Every fundamental improvement of teaching comes through the teachers themselves. Teachers must develop convictions that change is necessary and desirable.

In allowing creativity to flourish, it is important for the superintendent to have and to share with the rest of the district staff, parents and supervisors a genuine respect for the professional work of classroom teachers. If the release of teacher creativity is to be realized, the superintendent must give full consideration to the recommendation of teacher committees and professional study groups. This can lead to the development of teacher workshops, curriculum committees, the development of teacher resource materials and teacher training centers manned by teachers themselves. The potential for teachers to become involved in this area has rarely been tapped.

In some districts, a new idea developed by a teacher can involve the entire educational community of the district. Teacher creativity in the development and the use of new methods and materials of instruction for the education of the children is a must if the district is going to keep pace with the changing needs of children. It takes a great deal of thinking and effort to release teacher creativity. It is necessary to have many meetings with the superintendent and various groups in order to develop a feeling of mutual trust and a working relationship in which the superintendent functions as a colleague working toward the improvement of education for the children of the district. As a release of creativity develops, the promise of true professional growth takes place.

Today, superintendents must realize they are not operating as complete autocrats. The job requires the coordination of a professional team in a complex cooperative enterprise which requires energy, vision and some courage. The superintendent should provide the opportunity for the kind of teacher participation that results in team spirit and high morale that makes possible great strides in both teaching and learning. In this connection, the involvement of colleges and universities plays a very important role. The Teacher Corps in particular can play a more vital role as the need for professional growth of teachers is seen by the very teachers who will benefit from that growth.

If the schools are to be truly democratic institutions, the superintendent should reassess his role with regard to student involvement. Student organizations, organized from kindergarten through the grades,can be extremely effective as a means of determining interests, needs and concerns of all pupils.

The processes of student involvement themselves become a valuable learning experience in the development of democratic organization. Children should be given channels through the administrative maze to enable them to influence policy which affects their lives. Student councils with student faculty advisors meeting regularly with principals become an effective experience in democracy. If the superintendent sees his role as meeting with all of the leaders of each of the schools' student organizations frequently, so much the better. Problems of school vandalism, safety, security and graffiti can, and have been, handled successfully by student organizations which have been entrusted with the responsibility of making suggestions and carrying out their plans.

One of the most significant changes which should take place in the developing superintendent's role is his relationship with principals, assistant principals and other supervisors. The time has come when the superintendents must show concern for their principals' problems, assist them in understanding the sources of their problems and provide professional support in order to solve their problems. This cannot easily be done in the role of the chief rating officer. The superintendent must spend time developing a relationship which is free from fear in which principals work with the superintendent as colleagues in the development of effective educational programs.

The superintendent's receptiveness to change and new ideas encourages principals to change approaches and programs to meet the needs of their particular school. The urban superintendent who continues to meet with 20 or 30 principals at a time each month at a superintendent's conference may well be engaging in a futile educational exercise. Dealing with five or six supervisors at a time and openly discussing problems and possible solutions has been a more effective approach. The question that should be most often asked by a superintendent is "How can I help you?"

Superintendents' visits to schools should not be traumatic experiences forcing hurried messages passed from classroom to classroom such as "The eagle has landed." If schools are visited often and informally, and the superintendent sees children, teachers, supervisors and parents as partners in the development of the educational program, the superintendent can be viewed as a valuable resource in assisting the school in solving its educational problems.

A great deal has been said about the superintendent's relationship with the School Board. The superintendent who very early demonstrates competency and meets with some success finds it possible to get from the School Board sufficient authority to implement flexible educational programs as the need arises. The School Board represents a mechanism through which people control the educational program of a district. They should be an effective link between the public and the professional educators. The role of the School Board in establishing educational policy is paramount. The actual day-to-day administration of the district is best left to the professionals.

One of the most important influences in the superintendent's role is the manner in which the superintendent sees himself and the kind of person he is. There is no substitute for an open door, an open phone and an open mind. Availability to teachers, pupils, parents is a must if a school system is to become a truly democratic institution.

An honest superintendent with a smile, a ready handshake, enthusiasm, a love of children and knowledge of education can do more to change a district than all of the evaluative and accountability techniques ever devised by administrators. Last, but not least, since the superintendency is a high risk, high visibility job, it calls for a person who likes a challenge, needs excitement and has deep feelings for the school community.

SOME SECOND THOUGHTS: A DEAN'S REAPPRAISAL OF THE UNIVERSITY'S ROLE IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Jonathan Messerli

Our professional life is filled with incantations for reform. Our literature overflows with it. At our conferences we dutifully listen to one speaker after another urging a mind boggling catalogue of necessary innovations. At follow up sessions, we may even grow so bold as to confess our rigidities and promise to mend our ways. Then, as if relieved by some painless vicarious catharsis, like the oft-reformed drunkard, we return to our classrooms and offices to do most things as we have done them before. All this leads me to observe that we may even be for change, but only as long as it takes place with someone else or in someone else's institutions.

It was with this observation in mind that I first considered working within a project which held out the possibility of greater collaboration in teacher education. I had been to conferences; I had read the literature; and I had noted that much of the exhortation had come from those who remain unhindered by the sobering factor of previous experience either in classroom teaching or university administration. This initial skepticism was compounded by recognizing that they spoke and wrote from a cliched context, implying the irrelevance of teacher educators, the incompetence of teachers, and the self-serving behavior of school administrators. Yet if the rhetoric had little more validity than the easy plausibility of unexamined assumptions, the need to help children learn more effectively was real. Bringing teachers, administrators, professors and parents into a more cooperative effort could be worth the try. Although there are those social critics who seem ready to write off a whole generation of impoverished urban youth, we could not embrace such cynical capriciousness. As the dean of a metropolitan school of education whose faculty was committed to make a difference in the lives of these children, it was an opportunity not to be missed.

Now, after almost two years of cooperative effort, I believe the initial results augur well for further work. True, we have worked no pygmalion wonders, but we can see enough promise in changing a stubborn educational reality for the better. It is appropriate we make an interim assessment as we move on to the next stages of our work. For myself, it is time for a re-appraisal and the chance to share some of my second thoughts with others who may be about to take their first steps.

1. Perhaps the cardinal fact I have learned is that there is no substitute for intelligent, dedicated and psychologically mature individuals. It has been said that part of the structure of our educational system with its supervision, curricular prescription and compulsion for evaluation is based upon the dubious assumption of an incompetent teacher in the

classroom. Perhaps in some cases this has even been a self-fulfilling institutional arrangement. In collaborative efforts, the participants are much more exposed; much more is expected of them; their work is tested in the crucible of day-to-day classroom work. There are no plans, no procedures, no materials which are fail-safe or fool-proof. On the contrary, as it has been in the past, it is indefatigable administrators, teachers who care, parents who refuse to be ground down by poverty and urban decay, and academicians who are both intellectuals and persons of understanding who make the difference. All too easily they could read the literature of urban despair and withdraw to a more secure albeit apathetic routine. Perhaps I belabor the obvious. But if I do, I also am saying something upon which the literature is largely silent. What we have learned is that the human element of talent and dedication is the crucial factor - not educational soft-ware, hardware or sophisticated outlines for group process. What we have also learned is that it is to be found on the campus, in the schools, and throughout the community. This fact, more than anything else, augurs well for the future of greater collaboration in teacher education.

2. Do not set out on a collaborative project because some group of experts or some agency claims that we are presently doing a bad job. In all likelihood the assertion is wrong for the most part. More important, it starts collabora-

tion from the wrong point. The focus of effort will be to dismantle what has been done rather than benefit from it. Equally it encourages the participants to rely on transitory external help and advice instead of their own experience and training.

In making this observation, I am reminded of the great educational leap forward of the 1960's. Largely promoted by a new educational establishment drawn from some of the prestigious research universities, several wealthy foundations, the media, and the Educational Testing Service, they built their connection with Washington and the new arrivals at the desks at the Office of Education ready to fashion the scenario for Camelot. As never before, they had brought money, academic prestige, political influence and class status to bear on education problems. Beginning with a view of educational history as a narrative of mistakes and grossly over estimating the power of external intervention, they approached the present and future with less than a reasoned humility. Such a biased view of history guaranteed a false sense of originality and reformism. Believing that schools of education, schools and teachers' organizations were the problem and that they could not be trusted to reform themselves, they super-imposed their own solutions.

The implication was here for all who cared to see. Teachers and teacher educators were generally from the lower socioeconomic classes. They had been trained in intellectually inferior institutions and they were intellectually deficient for the job. From university mandarins and media gurus came pronouncements on how children should be taught. As one of the leaders in this new educational connection pontificated in 1960, "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development." What was needed was the "input" of "real" mathematicians and "real" physicists. The answer then was a new infusion of the brightest and the best. The offspring was a proliferation of workshops, re-training programs, research projects, and publishing enterprises. For all intents and purposes, the evaluation industry was born during this period.

Of course, the new establishment was right and it was wrong. Often their interest and commitment was a corollary to the level of pump priming and general funding. In some ways, it was a self-serving partisanship and, as could be expected, when the money ran short and the problems resisted both the easy and the enlightened solutions, they would move into other sectors, "disillusioned" by what the schools could accomplish for literacy and upward mobility. Blaming their failure on others, they left the problem with the classroom teacher.

Something of a similar context exists within the new rhetoric urging collaboration. My point here is that schools of education, administrators and teachers should not be pushed into someone else's version of a new panacea and for someone else's reasons. Instead we should come together in the knowledge that we have done reasonably well, given the level of support we have received. We should remind ourselves, as the outside experts and sometime reformers easily forget, that our previous efforts toward collaboration probably exceed that found in any other form of professional training. We should serve notice that we can build upon our experience rather than following uncritically the nostrums of would be experts and agency officials. To twist an interesting observation of John Gardner, what we need is critical lovers rather than unloving and uninformed critics.

3. Pert charts, flow diagrams and conceptual schemes are helpful crutches, but they are not the real things. Anyone contemplating a collaborative teacher training enterprise will not be troubled with a dearth of literature. Monographs and articles abound. They range from the hortatory and the heuristic to the expository and occasionally (if rarely) analytical. Preeminent in the minds of many writers is the function of governance and the refinement of group processes which can be manipulated and monitored towards predictable ends. On these topics, authors are hardly bashful in putting forth their ideas, their presentations often facilitated by schematic diagrams. Perhaps these have some pedagogical purpose, but I believe such instruments have far more applicability to the production and distribution of flu vaccine than to matters

of teaching and learning.

Simplistic in their structure, naive in their intellectual underpinnings, and often unwieldly and unworkable, such management schemes are of little help. Professionals do not fit into boxes. Neither do they move along straight lines across concentric circles. Their actions often are unique and only partially replicable at best. Personalities clash and harmonize in ways no diagram can depict or predict. Contingencies condition activities. Interim successes and setbacks require responses no "feedback loop" can prescribe.

In such an undertaking the real thing is the mission of the enterprise. The goal is learning gains in children. With such always in mind, groups will organize their work accordingly and with the benefit of their first successes the asset of trust becomes the invaluable collateral for risking something in the future. As crude pedagogical devices to describe governance procedures and "delivery systems", they may have an elementary benefit, but a successful collaborative project quickly outgrows its need for this, especially as it becomes really involved in teaching and learning in the classroom.

4. If higher education is really serious about professional collaboration, it must reconsider its commitments and reward systems.

For decades, teachers and teacher educators have worked for a higher professional standing, seeking to emulate the status, and to some degree, the economic rewards enjoyed by those in medicine and law. A chief vehicle for this has been the raising of educational standards for entry into the profession. Although evolution of the normal school into the state college is well-documented, what is often ignored in the accounts is that unlike medicine and law, teacher education entered the halls of academe as the unwelcome intruder upon undergraduate education and only slowly did it achieve the status of graduate study.

This objective, partially achieved at the present, was bought at a price by the teaching profession. To gain its place on the campus, teacher education had to accommodate itself to the pre-existent mores of American higher education. Among other things, it adopted the reward system of the major universities. This means that faculty members were constantly reminded of the desirability of research, the necessity of developing graduate programs, the virtue of specialization according to some intellectual discipline, and the benefits of publishing. Predictably, professional journals appeared, as did professional societies.

The rapid proliferation of journals and societies was spurred in the last two decades, aided by Federal funding, the advance in statistical methods, and the adaptations of Piagetian and behavioral psychology. It was by no accident then that the college curriculum blossomed forth with hybrid offerings of educational psychology, educational sociology, educational statistics, the history of education and the philosophy of education. There was more than intellectual inquiry here; it was also the achievement of at least a half-way respectability with their arts and science counterparts as well as a justification for their claim on University and college resources.

Some of the Ivy league members such as Princeton and Yale remained largely aloof from something as significant as becoming involved in training teachers. Other flagship institutions such as Stanford, Harvard, Chicago, Michigan, Wisconsin, Berkeley, Columbia and Ohio entered the field. Here though, their priorities often became skewed to different degrees, but all to the same direction. Eschewing a major emphasis on the training of classroom teachers, especially when not supported by external funding, they placed ever higher priorities on the production of "professional knowledge." Even on those occasions when they did turn to a greater emphasis on teacher training, as did Teachers College in the decade before WW II, the actual emphasis was not on pedagogy but really on the prostituting of teacher education as a means for social reform. Only marginal in these institutions has been the commitment to educate the American classroom teacher.

In criticizing higher education, teachers have a more fundamental concern than the "awful methods courses" and the minimal support they received as student teachers. Nor is the issue one of blaming researchers who do not translate their findings, nor one of blaming teachers because they do not apply the research to their teaching. The gulf on the American campus in teacher education has been much more significant than the separation of theory and practice or the division between the liberal and the more technical. What we have here is a system of higher education where more prestigious rewards are accorded the very activities which are the most distant from the training of classroom teachers.

For the teaching profession, this procedure has only added to their sense of alienation from higher education, a sense which is stronger than in medicine, law or engineering. What higher educators are saying to them is that they have decided that the improvement of the American classroom comes from the top down. They do so by their priority on training administrators. They are training people to move out of the classroom, rather than to be more effective within. If there has been a "brain drain," the universities have certainly done their part. Similarly, the research is mainly for administrators. And even where it is for teachers, it is often in the form of statistics whose collective numbers mean less to teachers who see their teaching achievements in terms of individual pupil gains. They also say that it comes by external means and not from within the teaching profession, by promoting educational research and special intervention programs which rarely involve teachers at the planning and policy stages. Meanwhile, back on the campus, the rewards of promotion and tenure go to those who travel between the campus and Washington, foundation offices, and the R & D centers. Only reluctantly is it given to those who travel between the campus and the school.

For good reason, then, teachers have increasingly latched on to the governance issue, culminating in their successful support of teacher centers run by teachers. Some of them also see the need to determine course content in teacher training and the criteria for entry into the profession. More important to them is the need for higher education to re-order its priorities. We can predict that the degree to which it fails to do so will also be the degree to which the profession increasingly will go it alone, especially in the area of inservice education.

Yet each step in this direction is at some risk to its interests. The leading professions have maintained close links with higher education; the incipient professions seem unrelenting in seeking it; anything less on their part may raise doubts in the minds of the public, justifiably or not, about the professionalism of teachers.

Organized teachers need institutions of higher education. But the collaborative process also indicates the converse.

Schools of education need much more closely working relationships with teachers. We may be on the edge of a more productive reciprocity. At the outset, we have learned that the collaborative shoe will pinch different people in different places, but it is beginning to fit. It is difficult to fashion, but as it takes shape it promises to benefit all involved.

5. Collaboration should encourage us to reconsider our priorities and our reward systems at the university; it should also demonstrate that reform can indeed come from within the profession and not rely on adventitious stimuli. It is a favored belief of the educational chic that "real reforms" in education have always come from those who are outside of the schools. If they know a little history they will tell you about Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Francis Parker, William Torrey Harris and John Dewey. With no less confidence they will cite the more recent influence of Rickover, Conant, Silberman, Kozol and Illich.

To be sure, Barnard, Parker, Harris and Dewey did come from other professions. Most of them became involved in the schools at mid-point or later in their careers. When they did, however, unlike the more latter-day part-time reformers, they did so with a full commitment and there is no question about their achievements. Once entering the schools, they came to stay, not only bringing their baggage of ideals and ideas along but unpacking it for an extended period, fully ready to work for a gradual but steady improvement. One fails to find anything approaching such a dedication more recently. Not that we have not had our reformers. Journalists, academic consultants, professional community activists, foundation officials all have had their say. Some have come to stay a day in the Bronx; some have gone so far as to teach a year in South Boston; some have visited a large number of schools and recorded some arresting vignettes; but it is the rarest of them that stays within the schools and works to make a difference. All too frequently, they crank out self-conscious, slightly guilt-ridden condemnations of the system and its people which are followed with an addendum of recommendations which are usually simplistic and sentimental. Attacking the system as unresponsive, they are themselves accountable to no one. Like seagulls, they fly in, leave their deposit and fly away to other feeding grounds.

By comparison, the collaborative process requires that people be committed and that they come to stay. Their work is not reviewed by a worried upper middle class reading accounts in the media but by co-workers and parents on a day-to-day basis. The process requires that the real changes will come from those most closely involved; that improvement will come from the inside out; that the seeds of improvement are within the system and that the talent and dedication will come from teachers, administrators, parents, and professors who will stay in the system and make it work.

To those considering a collaborative enterprise, they should understand that their work will be governed by four G's - get in, give and continue to give, or get out. Make no mistake. There is no overabundance of creative and productive ideas. But the collaborative process requires more than their exhortation from the media or the university lecture podium. The real use of them comes with the slow trial and error and measured success in the classroom. The process is fraught with difficulties. There are new alignments of responsibility; there may be new structures for making decisions; new styles of teaching may emerge and more traditional ones can take on new vitality and effectiveness; there are setbacks aplenty for every gain, but gains there can be. Although not the stuff from which to make educational headlines, they are steady, solid, and enduring.

There will then be change. When it comes, it will almost be unobtrusive. In time, it may be talked about on the conference circuit. Far more important is the fact that it will touch the lives of children and make a difference for them, their parents and their teachers.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INTERACTION

Sheldon Lindenbaum

The community is defined as occupying a neighborhood with a people who have had a history which they recognize as theirs and in which they feel pride. They are conscious of a sense of common experience. They share common service institutions and may act together to meet crises and solve problems. Transitional zones, clusters of businesses, slums, natural areas, islands of cultural and ethnic groups and layers of time reflected in architecture define the urban community.

The life of such a community is often at the mercy of formal institutional structures imposed by government or performing a governing function whose actions frequently have direct and profound influence on the daily routines as well as the quality of existence of community residence. Ranged against these "agent" institutions is an array of groupings of community people, e.g., issue-oriented community organizations, amalgams of rent-payers, ethnic and social clubs, and, often, spontaneous bondings of people with common problems, whose purpose is to channel and reflect the shared frustration of neighborhood residents or entrepreneurs with the often inaccessible institutions affecting their lives and livelihoods. The urban public school, among all these arms of government, has the unique capacity to be, at one and the same time, the agent in education of the larger institutional-bureaucratic society and the sole informal and accessible respondent available to local people for the fulfillment of community needs.

The 1970 report of the Urban Education Task Force, a careful review of the state of urban education across the nation, recognized the importance of school-community interaction in this statement:

> ...the educative process must no longer be conceived as only that which occurs within the physical boundaries of the school building as a result of formally planned lessons by the teaching staff. Instead this process must be conceived of as taking place anytime and anywhere.
>
> The learning which is acquired outside the school is just as valuable as that learning which is acquired within it. Moreover, this type of "outside" learning is definitely highly personal, meaningful and direct and which the "in-class" learning activities should not only be related to but could well seek to emulate... Above all the educative process should be focused on including the whole community with genuine sensitivity to and respect for its various needs, aspirations, and strengths. (Riles, 1970, pp. 9-10).

Nevertheless, this Presidential study panel found that many schools were quite literally insulated from the communities in which they resided, pedagogic islands in a sea of city-dwellers. Few of these urban schools had opened channels into their communities so that school personnel and local people could freely pass back and forth. Clearly it is imperative in our time that schools offer children more than book learning in the classrooms. They must make use of all the community's resources for providing children with direct and valuable contacts with environmental realities. Similarly, the school must function as a resource in providing residents with the educational and cultural means of living within that environment.

Community School District 10, Bronx is an inner-city school system which has translated such a conception into a set of strategies yielding concrete results in relationship with its communities. Much of what follows is directly derived from successful experiences in the District and, particularly, in I.S. 137X, Angelo Patri.

FOUNDATION BLOCKS OF INTERACTION

A school seeking to develop and execute a vital relationship with its community does so through activities built on four basic foundation blocks:

1. The school will operate as an educational and cultural center for the community.
2. The school will utilize community resources to invigorate the conventional program or course of study.
3. The school will improve its community by involvement in the community's life.
4. The school will focus its curriculum in studies based on and in the surrounding community.

Each of these foundation blocks is made up of many specific projects and activities and the rich possibilities available will become obvious as we look at the kinds of things that can be done. Moreover, the approaches which follow will have an ancillary benefit which in the long run may prove as valuable as the skills, knowledges and attitudes which the students will obtain. The students will discover that adults (including teachers) are engaged in a life-long learning process, and that the three o'clock bell does not signal the end of the learning time.

SCHOOL AS COMMUNITY EDUCATION CENTER

The school must offer its community an opportunity to view it as a center for education. An educational institution committed to interaction with its environment is in the enviable position of extending not only the conventional aspects of schooling into the community but also of bringing about a creative magnification of the concept of in-service training.

The school becomes the community in-service setting by developing an educational center which fulfills what real people in a real community need to make their lives more effective in the same way that in-service training for teachers seeks to enable real teachers in a real school to make their teaching more effective.

Here are some of the multitude of ways in which a school can stimulate, serve, and educate the community:

* the school can prepare local residents to qualify for a high school equivalency diploma.
* the school can organize classes for non-native Americans to instruct them in English as a second language.
* the school can establish classes and workshops in

parenting and child care, health and nutrition, consumer education, law and the rights of citizens, first aid, etc.

- the school can provide instruction for adults in specific subject areas of interest or specific areas of need.
- the school can exhibit art, photography, handiwork and crafts, as well as other projects created by community people.
- the school can arrange for timely topical, and meaningful speakers, movies and dramatic presentations to be made available to residents at low-cost or no cost.
- the school can function as the center for workshops and meetings in cooperation with local organizations dealing with local problems on an on-going or crisis basis.

To find out what residents need, simply ask them through a questionnaire. If the responses are sparse, use a check list. Informal conversation or rap sessions with local people often yield the desired information.

COMMUNITY PEOPLE AS A SCHOOL RESOURCE

In order to make curriculum and teaching methods exciting and lively to facilitate direct learning experiences, to establish a bond of relevance between the classroom and the outside world, and to generate course content which is rich and varied, the community should be involved in the work of the classroom and of the school in direct, functional ways such as the following:

- inviting local workers and craftsmen to demonstrate and explain what they do;
- organizing a careers day in the community;
- sharing ethnic customs and practices through folk dances, community sings, fashion shows and the like;
- creating social occasions such as international dinners based on locally popular ethnic and national foods;
- employing paraprofessionals from the community;
- instructing parents and children simultaneously in the English language;
- using local people in after-school tutoring sessions as aides;
- consulting local skilled people with technical expertise in connection with school activities, e.g., a neighborhood printer as a consultant to a school newspaper.

People, what they do and how they do it, provide a textbook without end, readily, frequently and generally willingly open to a school in which the community believes.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM MATERIAL

The proper and full use of the rich curriculum lode which is the community might very well render conventional school text publishing and schools obsolete. While such an extreme is not here contemplated, it is well to recognize that the ideas and activities below suggest so vast a set of possibilities for instruction that this means may yet come to be the alternative mode of education. Consider, for example:

- mapping the neighborhood;
- developing a catalogue of local public services;
- assembling a guidebook to commercial establishments and services;
- studying the local architecture;
- examining local government;
- investigating the history of the community;
- writing biographies of community people;
- learning about the local flora and fauna;
- describing the physical characteristics, attire, ethnic and class attributes of the local population;
- recording the social practices of the community;
- diagramming transportation patterns;
- reading the neighborhood (signs, advertisements, labels, brochures);
- decorating the community;
- creating a cookbook of locally popular recipes;
- applying computational skills in banks, stores;
- monitoring local construction, repair work, work styles.

Such approaches as those enumerated above will enable the learning and application of basic skills in ways which will translate abstract knowledge into concrete experience and convince students of the relevance of schooling. Moreover, it will provide the student with an appreciation of his environment and a sense of the texture of the "real" world otherwise not achievable. In the process, it will permit a graceful transition from the basic tools of knowledge to the creative arts and humanistic concerns.

SCHOOL AS COMMUNITY AGENCY

A large urban school is in a position to direct thousands of man-hours of useful activity back into the community from which the manpower emanates. A student population motivated by ideas of service and involvement can, through properly structured experiences, grow in skill, a sense of belonging, pride in competence and in community and ultimately will evolve into the next generation's cadre of productive citizens. Practical beginnings are found in activities like these:

- establishing links with various service organizations so that students can, through volunteer work, identify human needs;
- participating in community fund-raising activities for worthwhile local purposes;
- organizing efforts to raise money for victims of disasters in other areas;

- coordinating a clean-up drive;
- publishing a school-community newsletter;
- printing brochures and pamphlets describing community resources;
- disseminating information about local events or problems;
- initiating an apprenticeship program with local businesses to permit students to learn and practice new skills.

In this conception of service, the student grows in social understanding, knowledge of his culture, a basis for developing values and attitudes, social skills and a sense of the dignity of doing.

In making the school responsive to the community and enlisting the community in the process of education, it is often helpful for school personnel to know what the community in which the school is situated is like:

- to be familiar with community agencies and their leaders;
- to become involved in worthwhile community projects;
- to understand how government through its local agencies can be useful to local families and their children;
- to have first-hand experience with community events, meetings;
- to be aware of community needs and perhaps attempt to

participate in finding solutions to community problems.

Much of this community competency will develop naturally from what the teacher gains in organizing and implementing curricular activities from his students.

What the sophisticated expression of school-community interaction accomplishes can be seen in its effect on student achievement, community involvement and teacher effectiveness. The notion developed here has been that creative interaction with the community yields a three-tiered elaboration of the concept of in-service training:

- the child in his environment
- the community in its school
- the teacher in a full and fresh array of teaching modes and tools.

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OPEN EDUCATION AS AN ALTERNATIVE

Fred W. Goldberg

Alternative educational approaches have the same goals as traditional structures and, to the extent that they become imbedded in an educational system, may come to be regarded as the traditional mode. The term "alternative" is actually an historical designation. One decade's alternative is another's mode.

Early in 1970, Community School District 10 began examining alternative ways of responding to certain problems and needs which were significant to that urban complex of communities. The goal was to find reasonably fresh and stimulating ways of dealing with the following:

- improving cognitive pupil performance
- increasing frequency of pupil attendance
- integrating school life with community life
- encouraging children's affective development
- assimilating social change into educational patterns
- adapting instructional approaches to changes in curricular content and emphasis
- individualizing and personalizing the child's school experience
- preparing pupils for future social roles
- developing and understanding of cultural pluralism and diversity.

In considering appropriate alternative models adaptable to local conditions, the District was alert to the pitfalls of any departure from the traditional and anticipated many of the insights later articulated by Fantini (1973) who suggested that the greatest danger facing any alternative educational approach is that it will be viewed as a fad. He enumerates recent "fads" such as team teaching, programmed instruction, and humanistic education. In order to keep an alternative method from falling victim to faddism, Fantini offers certain guidelines that need to be applied in order to minimize problems and legitimize the alternative program:

- Alternatives should not be imposed, but should be derived from those affected--teachers, parents and students.
- Alternatives should be viewed as another way of providing education alongside the existing pattern, which continues to be legitimate. They should be different from special programs for dropouts, unwed mothers, and so forth. Accordingly, exclusivity is undesirable.
- Exaggerated claims of accomplishments are damaging to long-range acceptance of a broad, common set of educational objectives.
- They should be economically feasible.

Perhaps, the most important congruence of Fantini's view and the district's early training lies in the knowledge that an alternative approach may die the way of the fad not from the inadequacy of its conception but from the failure to properly prepare and support its implementation. Thus, even before the particular approach most suitable to this district was elaborated, the professionals involved felt that the effort would succeed only if the in-service training component was meaningful and the goals of the program were made clear to the school community.

Naturally, model alternative programs differ considerably in line with varient goals or needs. Whatever alternatives would be assayed, however, should permit reaching beyond the school to extend the experiential world of the student and to assimilate the resources of the community with the educational enterprise so that the school would not become an isolated entity within the community. At the same time, a clear humanistic emphasis is desirable. Certain alternative models emphasize these qualities.

For example, Fox & Lippitt (1968) describe a model for a Human Relations School. The model that they propose provides a set of practical and achievable options. The authors describe seven goals of their alternative school:

* to achieve involvement and collaboration of the major segments of the educational community and the socialization community
* to develop and maintain continuing in-service education

programs for all those involved including a major program of parent involvement and training

* to recruit, develop, and utilize the great variety of human resources needed to provide all students with stimulating learning opportunities
* to use technological resources for human relations and values clarification purposes
* to develop and maintain an open and supportive system of communication within the school building
* to develop and implement a humanistic curriculum
* to achieve community-wide involvement in developing ways to make program revision reflect changing pupil and community needs.

The stated goal of this open school is to help the child and adolescent learn in both the classroom and community with access to skills as needed and to permit learnings relevant to his major life experience. The author indicates that, in order to transform the public schools into open schools, the entire community must become a complex of learning sites re-organized across interdisciplinary lines. This model involves the re-allocation of personnel and resources in the public schools and a re-definition of the relationships between school and community, teachers and community persons, and adults and children. In addition, scholars and university-based professionals should be called upon to assist in developing new curricula and educational materials through in-service programs for a flexible and more humanized school.

Primarily, of course, the alternative school must concern itself with its educational impact on the individual child. Whyte (1971) describes an alternative project at the Markles Flats Junior High School to develop an open classroom and to build learning through facilities outside the traditional school. The pupils were a heterogeneous group who had difficulties in adapting to the standard school programs. The broad educational objectives were as follows:

- to allow pupils to progress according to needs.
- to develop independent problem-solving techniques.
- to allow pupils to pursue individual interests in depth.
- to create a greater degree of student initiative.

Both the school district and university benefitted from this program. The alternative school appealed to students not reached by regular school settings and the University was provided with a means to accredit teacher training experience. An evaluation of the project found that the academic achievement of the pupils equaled those of the traditional Ithaca Junior High Schools. Pupil opinion of the alternative school was higher than pupil opinion of the regular junior high schools. Parent participation was found to be greater than in the control schools.

After consideration of the alternative models available and the above-mentioned goals for this district, the Community Superintendent concluded that an open education model would have the best chance of success.

Approximately six years ago, Bronx School District 10 made a commitment to the development of Open Education as one alternative choice for the youngsters attending their 19 elementary and 7 junior high schools. Under a grant from the Ford Foundation, a study group of teachers was organized on an in-service basis to develop the program for the district. This group met for one year (once a week after school and all day for six weeks during the summer). Initial models were developed in pilot elementary classrooms in the district. Gradually, additional teachers and supervisors requested in-service training and the program spread to almost every lower school in the district.

The growth and success of the program on the elementary level led to an examination of ways to expand it into the intermediate and junior high schools as a parallel to the progress of the children as they advanced through the grades.

During the school year 1972-1973, a study group of junior high school teachers and supervisors met in retreat to explore a program for the pre-adolescent and adolescent. Groups of junior high school teachers formed clusters within their own schools and worked on pupil programming, flexible scheduling and development of an interdisciplinary curriculum. As goals were identified and strategies developed, they were tried out in the classroom, evaluated, modified and finally shared with the larger group. These teachers and supervisors continue to meet on a regular in-service basis to share ideas and problems. The junior high school teachers involved in open education had developed the skill of planning together and of looking beyond their individual disciplines to the needs of the individual child.

In the late fall of 1975, the Angelo Patri Intermediate School, designed and built as an open education facility, commenced operation. This building provided the primary testing ground for the extensive preparation described above. The school is essentially three sub-schools each with a special focus which seeks to provide students with choices to permit instruction and pupil success.

Students in each sub-school study not only the basic curriculum but also have motivational and enrichment experiences based upon the special features of that sub-school.

The School of Environmental Studies contains a planetarium, a green house, science labs equipped for experimentation in chemistry and physics, and a living science center.

The School of Performing Arts allows for the exploration of music, dance, drama and art and is equipped with instrumental practice rooms, a small theater, a dance rehearsal room and art workshops.

The School of Humanities, Communication and Media utilizes film-making, photography, videotaping and television, as well as the rich resources of New York City and community agencies.

All of the sub-schools deal with curriculum which "interacts with the community of man." Activities provide a concrete experience through which the basic skills become relevant to children's needs (as an example: instruction in reading and following directions and in measurement are integrated into a project to build a puppet stage).

Children experience individual instruction, small group teaching, independent study and peer instruction and develop the ability to function independently as well as to contribute as part of a group.

A primary function of the continuing in-service activity in the school has been to enable teachers to blend basic skills creatively into the special interest activities of the sub-schools.

Since 1975, a joint District 10-Fordham University-Teachers Corps program has been developed to train teacher interns and provide in-service training on a daily basis to the staff. The faculty of the Angelo Patri School, in collaboration with the faculty of Fordham University, has developed an in-service program of courses taught by the Fordham faculty on the school site. Frequently, members of the school staff make important presentations in their areas of specialization. The development of a Community Resource Center (a field-based teacher training center) provides a dynamic, useful mechanism for the growth of open education in the Angelo Patri School and throughout District 10.

To plan better for the future for both the in-service training of teachers and for future program construction for students and in order to justify the achievements of alternative and unconventional approaches, evaluation is important. Hickey (1972) discusses the need for evaluating alternative programs and investigating meaningful evaluation efforts. He points out that many alternative schools are opposed to measurement of their programs from a philosophical and defensive standpoint and that evaluation is viewed in a negative light because the purpose is not clearly understood. He indicates, however, that evaluation could be an integral part of an ongoing formative process if planned with teachers and administrators. It could also establish credibility for an innovative program, identify workable educational strategies, and set the stage for student evaluation. A helpful evaluation, he indicates, is one which does not avoid negative conclusions and which provides direction for program development.

Recognizing that evaluation instruments are inadequate and evaluation not always equipped to assess alternative education programs, Fordham University, in cooperation with the District, is in the process of formulating criteria for the evaluation of the Angelo Patri experiment. These criteria will include measures of student academic achievements, growth in the affective domain, teacher attitudes, parent participation, and staff and student attendance. Future planned in-service activities will, in addition, teach teachers how to better evaluate pupil progress and develop individualized instructional programs based on assessment of student performance.

Certain significant conclusions can be drawn from the experience of the past several years in implementing open education on the elementary level and, particularly, on the intermediate level at Angelo Patri, I.S. 137:

- Preplanning and in-service training involving the people who will work in the program are absolutely necessary from the point of conception through the on-going implementation.
- The school should not hesitate to reach out to tap resources which can offer continuing assistance (in this instance, Fordham).
- Not only teachers but also the community must be educated as to the goals and activities of the new program.
- Evaluation must be used not as a public relations device, but as a means of reliably gathering information for program improvement.

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DESIGNING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Stephen I. Leitman

DEFINITION AND DESIGN

Definitions of in-service are as plentiful as those who deliver it, and, like that legion of teacher-trainers, as various in characteristic. Some are practical, some sentimental, some political, some romantic, some authoritarian, some permissive. All are occasionally, even often, helpful, but none are always of value. In-service education is better defined after the process than before, because what it is is a function of what has to be accomplished. Designing in-service is the art of suiting the form to the function and defining in-service is more recreational than essential.

PAST PRACTICE

Historically, the parameters of in-service programs have been largely determined by administrative fiat. In New York City's centralized in-service system courses were developed each term on the basis of who was willing to teach what rather than on the basis of need. Teachers seeking increment credit would leaf through the biennial catalogue and choose a course more often than not, because of its geographical location in their own or a neighboring district. Relevance was largely an accidental benefit. Even the most current Board of Education in-service catalogue for Spring '77 shows little departure from the passivity of past practice. A close examination of this catalogue by a knowledgeable reader will show that most community school districts are parties to this approach in that they contribute several courses apiece to this catalogue to the extent that they have people willing to give a course.

WEAKNESSES OF TRADITIONAL IN-SERVICE

Weaknesses of this method are increasingly obvious:

- decisions as to content and approach are generally made in a vacuum with little emphasis on pupil, teacher, or system and need.
- key decision-makers are often housed at a place removed from the actual educational site - in a district office or at Board headquarters.
- the in-service activities generally have no theoretical or philosophical base.
- the courses, more than likely, bear little relationship to the day-to-day problems or life of particular schools.
- teachers are often captive audiences, in attendance because salary increments, differentials, or even continuation of service depend upon taking the courses.
- teacher needs, views, attitudes are largely ignored in course development.

An example of in-service training by fiat is the Board's on-going Human Relations course series which is required of each teacher (except Ph.D.'s!) for salary step advancement and which grew out of the thrust in the 60's to create an enlightened school staff which would break through barriers of race, sex or role. In no instance has the Board bothered to consider that some teachers need no such course while others wouldn't profit from thirty of them because the approach is just not suitable to them.

An example of a centralized in-service activity responsive to a real need is the series of on-going mini-courses for recertification in new license areas. These courses seek to meet the retraining crisis in New York City's schools resulting from layoffs and give increment credit as well.

It is noteworthy that the Board's "Staff Develpment" program has been administratively streamlined into various emphasis centers, e.g. School Development, Staff Development, etc., but the preponderance of courses still demonstrate the old reflexive approach.

CHANGE FACTORS IN IN-SERVICE

Alongside the empirical recognition that an imposed, essentially distant in-service program is not adequate to deal with specific people and specific problems, are certain basic factors which make in-service training essential rather than ancillary to successful delivery of education to students in the 1970's. Five such factors are readily identifiable:

- the urban schools must respond to a changing student population.
- the acceleration of societal evolution requires institutional adaptation.
- the knowledge-research base in learning theory, child development, and teacher effectiveness is growing.
- curricular change must flow naturally from social and informational progress; curricular emphases alter with changing social patterns.
- pre-service education of teachers has not kept pace with urban change; the higher experience-index of a more senior teaching population in New York City means that the pre-service training received is likely relevant.

WHAT CAN IN-SERVICE TRAINING DO?

What is in-service training supposed to do? Functionally, it should do what needs to be done which may vary from district to district, from site to site, and from teacher to teacher. Practically, in-service education will exhibit some of the following purposes:

- Remediation - to overcome shortcomings in the pre-service training process.
- Resource - to help teachers to gain competence in handling specific problems, e.g., breaking learning down into sequential episodes, applying alternative

teaching models (interaction, lecture), evaluating pupils' oral responses, constructing relevant criterion reference tests.

- Renewal - to counteract boredom and enable teachers to retain interest in the problems of educating.
- Expansion - to broaden the teacher repertoire and assimilate other roles into the teacher's, e.g. counselor, librarian, tour guide, community relations person, researcher.
- Development - to permit teachers to grow professionally in areas that they think they'd like and freely choose to explore, e.g., cultural enrichment, political problems, learning theory.
- Currency - to bring teachers up to date with knowledge and techniques which have come into the mainstream since the teacher's pre-service training was completed.

KINDS OF IN-SERVICE DELIVERY

A range of delivery components are available to achieve any purpose involving in-service education. They fall into three major areas: instruction, exploration,and interaction, but the areas are not stubbornly exclusive.

1. Instruction is that component of in-service which places the teacher in a student capacity and usually involves a course. Courses may have benefits aside from the in-service purpose at hand in that under certain con-

ditions, degrees may result and salary benefits be conferred. College courses are still the basic source of ongoing training followed closely by school district inservice courses. Of late, the mini-course, usually a school district product, has become popular since it permits concentration on specific non-generalizable skills or activities in an economical time span. In addition, teachers may learn on the job from instruction by programed materials and machines. Finally, the lecture or lecture series as an ancilla to course study can be regarded as an instructional mode.

2. Interaction comprises all teacher activities which may involve working and learning with other teachers. Examples are workshops and discussion groups, faculty conferences of the non-totalitarian variety, curriculum committees and study groups, and what the British call a working party, an in depth exploration of a common problem or area of interest. Variations of this latter would be the retreat, training weekend or other often off-site gathering to achieve a specific in-service goal. The relationship between colleagues which, ideally, characterizes the teacher-trainer-teacher interaction makes it appropriate to view teacher-training in the classroom alongside other ways in which peers learn from each other. Unlike instructional components, all these

approaches tend to be more human, more social and more flexible.

3. Exploration refers to anything that a teacher does which has self-improvement as its primary goal with professional growth as a significant aspect of that self-improvement. Independent study (reading) is probably the most widely exercised means by which teachers explore themselves and their profession. Attendance at professional conferences and conventions or, at least, that part of such attendance that concerns itself with the teacher's areas of interest is another important kind of exploration. The sabbatical leave for study and/or travel is also a substantial in-service training mode. A teacher may examine personal performance by the use of sophisticated media techniques as when, for example, video tapes of a teacher's classroom lesson are used to permit the teacher to evaulate and improve what actually takes place or,in a relatively unsophisticated way,such as modeling,which involves, primarily, the observation of the performance of one's colleagues with or without structured post-observation activities. An interesting variation on this last approach would be engaging in role-exchange with colleagues practicing other professional tasks. Thus, a teacher might be a librarian for a day or a counselor for a day and thereby gain insight not only

into what others do that impacts on the teacher's job and the students' experiences, but also into how the classroom's activities and the teacher's role appear from another perspective. May one timorously suggest that principal for a day would also be a risk worth taking especially if the principal is, meanwhile, teacher for a day?

The two most effective kinds of in-service training are those which admit of the least structural control and direction. The first includes all those accidental insights and concrete ideas which teachers receive from each other in the lunchroom, the teachers' room, or randomly in a brief hallway conversation. The second is what occurs within a teacher's mind, perhaps at the end of a difficult and discouraging day, when the teacher comes to conclusions about what should have been done or what might work better next time. We call it self-examination and it is the sensual mode of professional integrity.

PLANNING FOR IN-SERVICE

All in-service methods can be applied to any one problem. The choice of method is dependent on a number of issues,some of which involve policy. Teachers learn in a variety of ways, by doing, listening, researching, mediating, modeling. A good delivery effort must consider how people will learn this or that specific thing best and, in addition, how these people (the "target" group) will learn *this* best. The notion of "different strokes for different folks" is urgently pertinent.

Moreover, the very act of assessing the best method to complete a task or the best method for particular people to learn implies the process of participation for those who are commonly regarded as the objects of training. Can we this many years after Martin Buber still prefer the subject-object relationship to the subject-subject encounter? Can we afford to omit teachers from decisions about their own professional development? The answer is clearly that we cannot. Policy issues also impinge on planning. Should in-service training be self-directed (teacher's decision) or externally directed? Who should and can decide what needs to be learned? Do system needs take precedence over individual needs? Is in-service training a proprietary administrative function occasioned by the discrete requirements of a school district and are provisions for personal development irrelevant to the process? Finally, where in-service training is externally directed (and this is most common within districts), how can the district involve teachers in ways which lessen the feeling of obligation or imposition and increase the feeling of relevance and mission?

In planning in-service some resolution of those questions is necessary, but they need not be resolved in the same way each time. Frequently, the resolution will be a function of some external factor, level of inexperience of the staff, economic pressures, severity of pupil learning, retardation, etc.

There are other considerations important to planning in-service activities:

- What are the problems and who thinks they're problems?
- What do the teachers and/or the district wish to accomplish?
- What project rather than topic goals are contemplated?
- What personnel are available as resource or teacher-trainer or lecturer; who can do what?
- What are the physical arrangements that must be made; when will the activity occur, how will it occur, where will it occur, for how many will it occur?
- What conditions can be established which will increase participation, i.e., what are the incentives, how geographically convenient is the event, does it take place at a time when teachers can and will want to benefit from it?
- Does the readiness so commonly considered with respect to students exist in the particular situation for teachers, e.g., in training un-experienced teachers to work within an unfamiliar open education setting, how much can they absorb, at what pace, on what levels, in what units?
- What is the relevance of what is being offered to those

whom it is offered; is it vital and relevant or is it an ossification of meaningless practices?

The design of an in-service program both in its conceptual and practical aspects is essential to its success. Successful teaching and effective supervision are not accidental. They involve careful planning and cooperative endeavor on all levels of staff. Equally important, however, is the exercise of the responsibility to continuously seek a high level of quality in the in-service product. A district cannot allow itself to become so absorbed in what is being taught and how implementation is taking place to lose sight of the assessment and evaluation of what is going on. The capacity to look at the activity, to modify it, to discard it, to change flexibly as change is needed must be developed. The vitality of curriculum for in-service must be viewed no less stringently than curriculum for students, for many of the same factors which demand change and flexibility for students exist with regard to teachers. Eternal vigilance is the price of effective in-service education.

ADAPTING COLLEGE COURSES FOR ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION

Claire Ashby-Davis

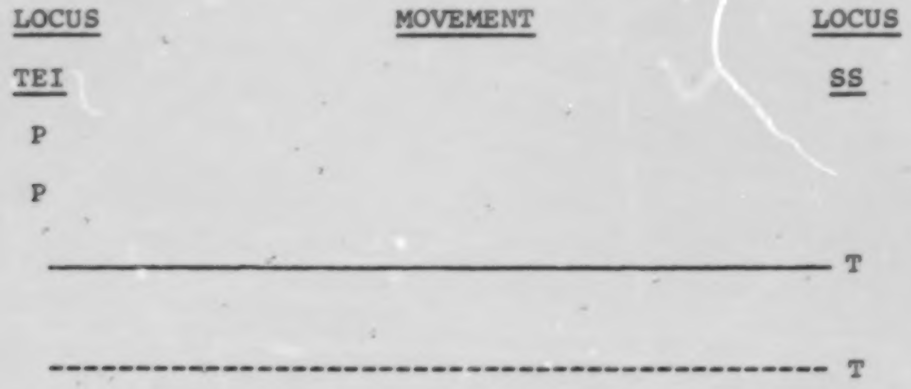
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this article is to describe several real or possible components of on site teacher education systems. The presentation will be in outline form, including graphic displays of the organizational parts of each component and an evaluatory critique representing the opinions of the author.

This description of system components will lead to examples of practical ways to combine the parts into interlocking, complementary, and supportive structures which have as their immediate goal the improvement of teacher education.

MODELS OF CAMPUS BASED OR ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION

Education is both science and art. Stress on or exclusion of either science (theory/research) or art (practice) leads to an inadquate teacher education system. In this paper selected models of on site education which incorporate theory and practice will be discussed. The models will be described in terms of a training continuum involving instruction at both the teacher education institution and the school, differing spatially and temporally with regard to professor and teacher movement and locus. See the diagram on page 83 for a graphic representation of these differences.



Key: TEI - Teacher Education Institution

SS - School Site

P - Professor or Instructor at the Teacher Education Institution

T - Teacher

______________________________ - Movement of Professor

------------------------------ - Movement of Teacher

The diagram shows models may differ according to whether the professor stays at the teacher education institution (hereafter referred to as the TEI), moves to the school site (hereafter referred to as the SS), or combines instruction at the TEI and the SS. They also differ according to whether the teacher stays at the SS, moves to the TEI, or combines instruction at both sites. Since the outline will follow a continuum, it will begin with models in which teacher and professor engage in training events primarily at the teacher education locus and end with models in which teacher and professor engage in training events primarily at the school site locus.

ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL ONE

Large Group/Small Group Instruction: 100% Instruction at the TEI; 100% Application of Instruction at the SS.

PROCESS ORGANIZATION

- Instruction is structured so that teachers go to the TEI to learn theory/research relevant to teaching.
- Teachers return to school site to apply immediately the theory/research learned.
- Teacher returns to TEI to share and critique materials, plans, results of instruction with P and other teachers in terms of the theory/research proposed.
- Teachers modify their materials in terms of this critique session and apply their modified plans in class at the SS.
- Teachers return to TEI to report effects of their changes in instruction, and move on to new theory and research suggested by the professor.

ADVANTAGES OF CAMPUS BASED TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL ONE

- Teachers can use the facilities and resources offered by the TEI where there may be more extensive and current model materials available than at the SS.

- Teachers can share their insights and results with other teachers from a number of schools.

DISADVANTAGES OF CAMPUS BASED TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL ONE

- Success or lack of success of teacher application of theories and/or research findings are self-reported at the TEI. Thus, observation by an "objective" evaluator may be missing from Model One.
- The professor remains at the TEI and thus does not become involved in the real events of real schools. Discussion of issues and modification of theories depend largely upon second-hand reporting.

VARIETIES OF CAMPUS BASED EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL ONE

- To improve the objectivity of self-reportage, the P could include in the course at the TEI such elements as role play and simulations.
- The time intervals of instruction at the TEI may be altered to increase teacher use of theory/research at the SS. Thus, a course may be offered as a "workshop," occurring at intervals spaced such that teachers have adequate time to apply the theories taught. Teachers could come together for a four-to-five-hour session on a weekday afternoon or on Saturdays, three to five times a semester rather than fifteen times a semester.

COMBINATION CAMPUS BASED, ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL TWO

Individualized Instruction through Practice: 50% instruction at the TEI; 50% instruction at the SS; 100% application of theory/research at the SS.

PROCESS ORGANIZATION

- Instruction is structured so that teachers go to the TEI for an organizational-orientation session with their Practicum Professor. They are given theory/research instruction.
- Teachers return to SS to apply learnings. When they believe they are ready for observation they notify the P to come to the SS. (The P may wish instead to observe on a regular weekly or monthly basis.)
- The P goes to the SS, observes the T in one of more real events and holds pre-and/or post class conferences to provide objective evaluation according to agreed upon criteria.
- Teachers are free to go to the TEI to use library or resource centers and to confer with P by appointment in office hours. (If several teachers are engaged in the practicum at the same time, the P can arrange for small group role playing of simulation events for pre-practice or remediation of teaching techniques.)

ADVANTAGES OF COMBINATION CAMPUS BASED, ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL TWO

- Events at the TEI permit teacher sharing in small groups beyond the single site population. This sharing broadens teacher learnings because of the variety of applications of theory/research suggested.
- The practicum is individualized so that the theories and research findings taught remain the same at the highly generalized level but their application is tailored to the teacher's needs and practice in a real situation.
- Such a course need not be limited to a single semester. It could, instead, be assigned a single course number and spread over two or even three semesters. The conclusion of the course would occur when the candidate had successfully completed the required performance criteria promulgated at the orientation session.

DISADVANTAGES OF COMBINATION CAMPUS BASED, ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL TWO

- Such a program can be difficult to administer when the population of the class is large and/or widely distributed geographically. In this case, the hiring of part time regular or adjunct faculty may be necessary. Further, these faculty members would need instruction in the objectives of the practicum. It must be noted that the higher the cost to the TEI, the less likely the course would be initiated--despite its many advantages.

- The registrar's office at the TEI must be geared to accepting course evaluation which arrive at varying intervals rather than at the conclusion of a semester.

VARIETIES OF COMBINATION CAMPUS BASED, ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL TWO

- In times of economic crises, it is foolish to assume that all teachers who come to the TEI are employed. How can theory and practice be combined on site for them? Obviously, they cannot profit from use of Model One. Model Two can be altered to meet their needs. Some alterations are suggested here.
    - The TEI can establish or continue to work with their consortium to identify teachers willing to accept an intern. These interns would give proof of their application of theory/research instruction in real classroom events with special groups of students. (This internship would be of value to interns seeking a field-based experience)
    - The TEI can establish or continue to work with volunteer organizations which serve pupils in after-school or Saturday sessions. A careful selection of such organizations could lead to on site teaching and observation as described in

Model Two. (This internship would be of help to teachers currently employed in other than teaching occupations.)

ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL THREE

Large Group, Small Group, Individualized Instruction: 100% instruction at SS; 100% application at SS.

PROCESS ORGANIZATION

- Instruction is structured so that the TEI identifies a school system, district or school which wishes on site instruction for its teachers. A process is worked out for identifying instructional area needs. Professors at the TEI are provided with these data and volunteer because of their expertise to carry out on site instruction.
- The P goes to the SS to meet with the group of teachers who wish the special instruction. They work out a plan for instruction, observation, evaluation, follow-up conferences, remediation and record keeping.
- Large group instruction: Let us suppose fifteen to twenty teachers of English in a senior high school signify their interest in teaching reading in the content area. This information is relayed to the TEI and a P, interested and competent in the area, is asked to conduct on site instruction at the high school.

Large group events could include: general orientation; general instruction in theories and research findings related to teaching reading in the English classroom; reporting sessions in which whole group shares general outcomes of their applications of theory and/or research.

- Small group instruction: After identifying special interests of the large group, the P could divide the group into smaller units. Times for their meeting could be determined.
- Pre-class and post-class conferences between P and T could be individualized. The P can also use commercially prepared, professor prepared, and/or teacher-prepared individualized instructional materials with the teachers. The P sets up a management system by which teachers may study materials, apply them in class, invite observation by P and/or other teachers, obtain and discuss critique of lesson, and alter and/or maintain elements of instruction.

ADVANTAGES OF ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL THREE

- From the teacher's viewpoint: Busy and tired teachers do not have to travel beyond the SS to get requested and needed instruction in theory/research. Their schedules can be structured by a cooperative administration so that large and small groups can meet with the P during the regular school day. There is little or no time lag between instruction in theory/research and its application. The teacher tends to perceive the professor's advisement as real and therefore worthwhile.

* From the professor's viewpoint: Professors are not fatigued from travel to a number of schools in the same day. They can familiarize themselves in any given semester with the total school environment. Identification of areas for research and development of educational theory are fed by knowledge of real on site experiences.

DISADVANTAGES OF ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL MODEL

* The TEI may not wish to commit itself to such instruction if large enough numbers of teachers at the SS are not identified as needing or wishing instruction at the school. Teacher education institutions are and must be concerned with cost effectiveness in the disposition of the time of their faculty.
* School personnel who usually carry out some sort of inservice teacher training and/or evaluation may view the frequent visits of the P as unwelcome intervention. This condition would be most likely to occur when the school has not encouraged the participation of all con-

cerned in the planning of the on site program. It is also likely to occur when the role expectations of each person in the program have not been clearly delineated and promulgated. It must be made clear to school personnel and to the professor that the professor is not a replacement for administrative or supervisory personnel.

VARIETIES IN ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL THREE

- As the diagram of professor movement shows, the major use of space and time in Model Three is on site at the SS. Obviously, variety in this structure would be teacher movement to the TEI. There they would have access to the library, resource centers, laboratories, and conferences with the P during daily scheduled office hours.
- Another and important variety in instructional modes would be the modification of the role of the professor. If the school permits,the P could teach pupils in large or small groups or conduct individualized instruction along with the teachers, seeking new solutions to instructional problems. Thus, the P would be perceived as a peer searching for answers rather than an omniscient authority figure.

ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL FOUR

Large group, small group, individualized instruction with school personnel who train/evaluate teachers: 100% instruction at SS; 100% application at SS.

PROCESS ORGANIZATION

- Working with a consortial arrangement as described, the TEI could set up a teacher education system in which the school personnel charged with the responsibility for teacher training would identify areas in which they would like instruction and practice in the implementation of current theory and research. Professors competent in these areas and desiring to conduct on site instruction could volunteer and be assigned to teach these courses.
- As in Model Three, the P would go to the SS to work out an acceptable mode of instruction and interaction. School personnel could join with the P in large group or small group instruction events. After such sessions, they could join the P while he/she works with teachers, modeling the techniques taught. The P would then observe the school personnel as they took over the instruction and evaluation. Mutually agreed upon criteria would enable evaluation of school per-

sonnel performance.

ADVANTAGES OF ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL FOUR

- The professor is seen less as a foreign interloper when he/she works with administrative and supervisory personnel to improve teacher education.
- When administrators, supervisors, teachers, and professors agree upon generalized criteria for teaching improvement, the unity (not uniformity) enhances pupil learnings and permits action research concerning the effectiveness of the methods used.

DISADVANTAGES OF ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL FOUR

- The success of Model Four depends upon a solid foundation of amenable relations between the TEI and the SS. Such relations can be established through consortial agreements and clear defnintions of roles for all concerned. Any slipshod or hasty entrance into a program of this type which prevents the cooperation so described would vitiate the entire procedure and, unfortunately, could lead to dissention, role conflict, and frustration.

VARIETIES IN ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION: COMPONENT MODEL FOUR

- In some schools there has been an effort to identify master teachers; that is, those teachers whose creativity and overall excellence in teaching performance should be shared with other teachers. The P can work with these teachers in developing ways to disseminate their lessons and use of materials.

* School personnel can use the facilities of the TEI.

ON SITE TEACHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS

The preceding descriptions of four on site teacher education component models are proposals for structuring college courses which may serve as parts for larger teacher education systems. There are numerous ways to combine these parts or others into an integrated whole.

MODEL ADAPTATION

The adaptation of the four previously mentioned models will be discussed in reference to a New York City junior high school, the Angelo Patri School. The teachers involved were National Teachers Corps interns. Only the Spring, 1976 semester will be explained in detail since it established the tradition which influenced subsequent efforts.

The following are a series of graphic representations to summarize the working of the system.

Figure 1.

Overall Design of Spring Semester 1976 On Site Teacher Education of National Teacher Corps Interns Assigned to Angelo Patri School, I.S. #137

TEI	SS	
------------	Component Model One	
	Component Model Three	Production of an Individualized, Performance-Based Module Cluster in a Content Area, with cognitive and affective goals. (At least ten sequential modules developed according to promulgated criteria.)

Key: 1. ---------------------- means teacher intern movement.

2. Component Model One means the structure referred to on page 84 in this article.

3. Component Model Three means the structure referred to on page 89 in this article.

An examination of this diagram and the descriptions indicates that the teacher interns combined instruction in courses at the teacher education institution (Fordham) with on site instruction at Angelo Patri School. The summative evaluation for both types of instruction was the interns' production and use of a module cluster of individualized instruction elements in a content area. All instruction and practice in writing modules and their use during the semester would lead to this final endeavor. The complex and carefully planned module cluster would then serve two purposes: a summative evaluation for the courses; and a model for future writing of materials for instruction in the open education atmosphere of I.S. 137.

The model used was chosen on the basis of several considerations:

1) availability of materials for bilingual education at Bilingual Education Center on campus
2) rapport between instructor and interns leading to intern interest in having instructor observe classes
3) close relationship between course assignment and curricular interests suggesting on site testing of instructional modules produced for course

Figure II.

Close-Up View of Professor and Teacher Movement and Locus in the Spring 1976 Semester of On Site Teacher Education for National Teacher Corps Interns at the Angelo Patri School, I.S. 137

LOCUS	MOVEMENT AND ACTIVITIES	LOCUS
	Model Component One	
Fordham		Angelo Patri School
P	Large Group Instruction in Individualization	T
	Application of Theory/Research with Pupils	
	Reports to Large Group and P on Results	
	Application of Suggestions by P and Group	
	Small Group Conferences with P	
	Individual Conferences with P	
	Application of Suggestions from Conferences	
	REPEAT CYCLE ABOVE AS NEEDED	

PLUS

LOCUS	MOVEMENT AND ACTIVITIES	LOCUS
	Model Component Three	
Fordham		Angelo Patri School
P	Attendance at Consortium Meetings	T
	Attendance at National Teacher Corps Meetings	
	Orientation to Angelo Patri School	
	Small Group Instruction of Interns	
	Individualized Instruction of Interns	
	Observation of Intern Teaching Events	
	Evaluation of Intern Teaching	

LOCUS	MOVEMENT AND ACTIVITIES	LOCUS
	Model Component Three (continued)	
Fordham		Angelo Patri School
P	Conferences with School Personnel	T
	Conferences with Teacher Corps Team Leader	
	Assistance in Producing Individualized Lessons	
	Some Informal Individualized Instruction with Pupils	
	Final Evaluation of Intern Materials	
	Use of Fordham Library	
	Use of Professor-or Other Teacher-made Materials	

Key: 1. T means Teacher Intern.

2. P means Professor from Fordham.

3. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ means movement of Teacher Intern.

4. ____________ means movement of Professor.

Figure II. demonstrates that there was teacher intern and professor movement between the teacher education institution and the school site. The interaction was for various purposes, but all interactions led to increased communication, better understanding of problems and issues, and harmonious relations between the teacher education institution and the school.

Figure III.

Structure of On Site Teacher Education at Angelo Patri School: Sample Week's Schedule of Teacher Corps Interns

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
A.M.	Applications of Theory/Research in Small Group or Individualized Instructional Events. At SS.	Same as Monday A.M. At SS.	Same as Monday A.M. At SS.	Same as Monday A.M. At SS.	Small Group Conference with P. At SS.
P.M.	Observation of other Teachers; Conferences with Team Leader. At SS.	Small Group and or Individualized Conferences with P. At TEI.	Same as Monday P.M. At SS.	Same as Monday P.M. At SS.	Observation of Teaching by P. Conferences with Team Leader and P. At SS.

Key: 1. T means Teacher Intern.

2. P means Professor from the Teacher Education Institution (Fordham).

3. TEI means Teacher Education Institution (Fordham).

4. SS means School Site (Angelo Patri School).

Figure III. gives an even closer view of how the system worked in a given week. Although the activities differed from week to week in response to school activities, the interns' visits to the TEI and the professor's visits to the SS remained constant. Further, what the Figure does not show but which proved to be a valuable constant in this system was the fact that the professor who taught the interns on Tuesday at the TEI and who taught them at the SS was one and the same person. For this reason, one of the usual disadvantages of Model One was eliminated; namely, that the professor of a course at the TEI may have only second-hand knowledge of what goes on in the classrooms of students.

The spring semester of 1976 components may be thought of as a large cluster of events which were inserted into an even larger teacher education system. The latter thus far has consisted of: Fall, 1975: Intern use of Model One at the TEI and Observation of Teaching Events at both Angelo Patri and other intermediate schools in the district; Fall, 1976 - Spring, 1977: Combination of Models One, Three, and Four. It remains to be seen what further modifications will be made in this onsite teacher education system which seems to have so much promise for better training of teachers for the future.

CONCLUSIONS

The practical example of diverse ways to combine the basic component models suggests that innumerable variants, all of which could be responsive to the needs of the participants in a teacher education program, could be devised. Some would concern input and training of parents and community members; others might concern governance of education with input from a multitude of sources.

PROFESSIONAL STAFF NEEDS ASSESSMENT:
A DISCREPANCY ANALYSIS

John B. Poster

Need assessment is a systematic process by which the progress of an organization towards its goals may be monitored. A discrepancy analysis is a procedure for identifying the gaps between the real and the ideal or desired state in program functioning.

Suppose that a faculty knows what its collective professional goals are as a result of participation in an identification effort such as that offered by the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Goals and Objectives[1] program. (A number of goal assessment exercises are available from professional organizations such as Phi Delta Kappa or state departments of education.)

Suppose, too, it has some idea of how the students are achieving relative to other students of the same age and grade level. If many of the students are not reaching reasonable goals, there is clearly some obstacle to effective education. In real life there are usually a number of obstacles: lack of money, fatigue, large classes and a range of non-school related reasons. Through needs assessment, the school staff can identify some of the school-related obstacles to improve performance. The results may suggest to each interest group, parents, teachers, paraprofessionals, school board members, etc., which problems are most immediately within its control and which difficulties must be tackled by others. For example, the teachers, as a single school faculty, cannot reduce school population, but they can improve their instructional or interpersonal skills in problem areas while urging other groups to do their part.

Needs are not the same as preferences: the resources or training indicated as necessary may not be appealing in terms of ease of acquisition or joy of application. Needs do, however, suggest a possible means of overcoming the obstacles documented by the assessment process.

A fundamental assumption of a survey needs assessment process is that people can accurately diagnose their own problems and, to some extent, the larger problems of the institution or organization in which they work. This belief appears justifiable in a school setting because the problems are often made apparent by student test scores, school incidents or advocacy groups.

SITUATIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Why should each interested faculty go through a needs assessment process when many schools have the same goals and the same results in terms of student achievement? Wouldn't the deficiencies in resources or training and the possible mediocre strategies discovered at one such school be applicable at all similar schools? The answer is no, because school culture differs among institutions.

At several schools, a breakdown in discipline may be assessed as the most salient problem. A lack of order and mutual respect will certainly frustrate instructional efforts. At one such school, the need for improved discipline may be satisfied by a reemphasis of traditional values--a strictly enforced code of conduct coupled with real paternalism, a genuine concern for student well-being. At another such school, parents and teachers may prefer formation of an alternate minischool with relaxed scheduling and standards of conduct. A third school may opt for a time-out room, peer counseling, and greater parent involvement.

It appears, then, that needs assessment assists delineation of barriers to better education and application of situational knowledge to identify the most efficacious and acceptable solutions. This conception of needs assessment allows latitude for local wisdom. Since school cultures vary, effective problem-solving requires the rejection of uniformity and the adoption of practices which will mobilize all school interest groups for fuller realization of student potential. Depending on the situation, the goals may be constant, but the practices may be remarkably alike.

OBJECTIVES

The abbreviated survey instrument which is included as part of this needs assessment discrepancy analysis package is designed for use by a total faculty at a single school site. The impetus for a needs assessment may come from a belief at the local level that school improvement is both possible and necessary. Use of an assessment should not be regarded as a sign of school shortcomings. In fact, healthy and productive organizations routinely conduct introspection exercises to improve morale and productivity.

A survey, such as the one which follows, may be an aid to planning in-service education through development of defensible school-need priorities. Such priorities may then be related to district-wide or system-wide goals and coordinated with applicable governance regulations and procedures.

A school-community conference or retreat may replace a paper and pencil survey. An advisory council may plan an agenda for the conference allowing open-minded consideration of topics suggested by participants. It is important that such conferences provide a risk free atmosphere for people attending so that an honest exchange of opinions takes place.

The Total School Faculty Needs Assessment Survey invites responses which may suggest training for administrators, supervisors, counselors, paraprofessionals, auxilary personnel and parents, as well as teachers. Respondents are not informed of the major areas being surveyed so that each item will be answered without reference to others and with no preconception as to what is desired. Ten problem areas (factors) are included with five items for each area. It is desirable to have a number of items for each problem area, so that if any item is unclear to a respondent, the ratings on the other items for the same area will reflect the respondents' real estimate of the severity of the problem. The instrument becomes more useful as the number of respondents increases. One respondent may answer an item differently from another, but extremes will be balanced by the choices of the total number of respondents.

After the survey has been scored, summary sheets depicting the rating which respondents have given to separate factors should be distributed. Participants then may compare their assessment of school problems or needs with the collective estimate of the other respondents. A planning group or proposed writing team may make use of these results to devise a multifaceted training and outreach program.

DIRECTIONS

The following survey is designed for school employees. It may be completed in fifteen minutes, or less, and handscored in five minutes. It is suggested that raters be allowed to respond anonymously.

Each rater should read through the survey once before marking a response to any item. There are fifty statements.

In the full version of the survey, each statement is followed by examples of the type of problem indicated by the statement. In the abbreviated version the examples are omitted. Below the item is a scale of five response categories. If the item does not apply to the school with which the rater is associated, none of the response categories need be marked.

A number appears above each response category: slight - 1, mild - 2, moderate - 3, great - 4, and extreme - 5. The number will be used in the scoring. To the right of the response categories is a space labeled "Total" in which the rater should write the number above the category marked for each item. In item example 1, which follows, the rater has decided that the school has only a mild drug problem. The category labeled mild has been checked and the number which appears above "mild," #2, has been placed in the space at the right. In the second item example the rater has decided the school has a severe underachieving student problem and has marked the extreme category and placed the number which appears above "extreme," #5, in the space at the right.

Examples

1. Student drug or alcohol abuse to the detriment of health and achievement

Degree of Problem Severity in Rater's School

1	2	3	4	5	
slight	mild	moderate	great	extreme	Total
( )	(X)	( )	( )	( )	2

Examples

(continued)

2. Chronic student underachievement as demonstrated by achievement or aptitude test scores

Degree of Problem Severity in Rater's School

1	2	3	4	5	
slight	mild	moderate	great	extreme	Total
( )	( )	( )	( )	(X)	5

If a rater is in doubt as to the degree of severity which should be checked, the decision should be made on the basis of direct knowledge of the problem as it pertains in the specific school.

DIRECTIONS FOR SURVEY ADMINISTRATORS

1) The purpose of a needs assessment should be explained to the faculty, preferably at a general meeting, and a discussion of objectives and reservations should be encouraged.
2) An assessment committee or advisory council should be formed to supervise distribution and scoring of the survey if the faculty has agreed to undertake the assessment.
3) The assessment form and the directions for raters, but not the scoring sheets, should be distributed to the school faculty. The number of forms distributed should be noted. If the survey is not to be filled out at a general meeting, a cover sheet should be added telling respondents where and when to return the survey form.

4) A storage area for safekeeping of completed forms should be reserved.
5) The assessment committee may designate a scoring team to compile the survey results.
6) When it is evident that all the distributed forms have been returned or no more will be returned, the scoring team should check to see if 80% of the total number of forms distributed have been returned. If less than 80% have been returned, step 1 should be repeated because there is resistance to the needs assessment process and an inadequate sample of faculty opinion has been received.
7) When the scoring team has received the completed forms, and has determined that the number of such forms is adequate (at least 80% of the number distributed) it should add the ratings (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) for each item (i.e., all the item #1 responses should be totaled, the item #2 responses, etc.) and the totals entered on the factor score sheet.
8) After the item scores have been added, the five totals for each factor should be added to achieve a factor total.
9) the total factor scores should be entered on the factor summary sheet, and the factors listed in order from highest to lowest. The highest scored factors suggest the problems regarded as most severe by the faculty.
10) The factor (or problem) summary sheet and the factor rank-

ing sheet should be reproduced and distributed to the faculty.

11) The assessment committee or advisory council may request a total school faculty meeting to discuss the implications of the assessment responses. The problem areas rated most severe may not be within the control of the total school faculty. The assessment committee may wish to discuss this finding with the appropriate decision makers. The faculty may desire in-service education designed to alleviate school problems over which it has some influence. A planning or proposal writing group may result from this desire.

If additional assessment activities are requested, the assessment committee may wish to adopt a bilevel or trilevel approach which is more valid than an assessment based on responses from a single group of participants. One such trilevel approach uses responses from teachers, instructional leaders in the district, and university consultants.[2] It is also possible to combine a needs assessment with a values assessment.[3] The assessment group may also wish to alter the Total School Faculty Needs Assessment Survey because of problems in its school not dealt with in the survey. When this is done, the revised survey should be used with a small group of faculty members before it is administered to the total school faculty so that misunderstood items may be improved. The Total School Faculty Needs Assessment Survey may be shortened by removing one or two items per factor, thus producing a forty or thirty item survey instead of a fifty item instrument. The number of items subtracted from any factor should always be the same as the number of items taken from the other factors, i.e., if one item is removed from factor 1, only one item should be removed from all the other factors.

The full Total School Needs Assessment Survey offers four examples after each item of the type of condition referred to by the item. In the full survey the first two items appear as follows.*

Item Examples

1. Student drug or alcohol abuse to the detriment of health and achievement
    - a). intoxicated or drug altered students in class
    - b). drug or alcohol sales in school
    - c). apparent use of drugs or alcohol after school with noticeable effects in school
    - d). frequent instances of bizarre student behavior attributable to drug or alcohol usage

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*A copy of the full survey may be obtained from:
Dr. John B. Poster
Graduate School of Education
Fordham University at Lincoln Center
New York, N.Y. 10023

Degree of Problem Severity in Rater's School

1	2	3	4	5	
slight	mild	moderate	great	extreme	Total
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	_

2. Chronic student underachievement as demonstrated by achievement or aptitude test scores
   - a). one-third to one-half primary grade students retarded at least one full grade in reading or math
   - b). one-third to one-half elementary, junior high or secondary students in other curricular areas performing substantially below grade level norms
   - c). one-third to one-half of students in other curricular areas performing substantially below grade level norms
   - d). one third to one-half of students failing district or statewide tests required for graduation

Degree of Problem Severity in Rater's School

1	2	3	4	5	
slight	mild	moderate	great	extreme	Total
( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	_

Total School Faculty Needs Assessment Survey

1. Student drug or alcohol abuse to the detriment of health and achievement
2. Chronic student underachievement as demonstrated by achievement or aptitude test scores

3. Uncertainty as to source of underachieving or maladjusted students' difficulties
4. Prejudice or discrimination (racial, ethnic, sexist, or socioeconomic) among staff towards students or each other
5. Inadequate supervision and rating of professional staff by supervisory personnel
6. Little opportunity for student self-governance, expression, and curricular choice
7. Overemphasis on status and rank in faculty relationships
8. Large classes reducing the amount of attention which can be devoted to each student
9. Discrimination (racial, ethnic, sexist, religious or agist) on part of school district trustees of district officials toward school personnel
10. Excessive paperwork, data collection, and evaluation activities for federal agencies and funded (reimbursable) programs
11. Racial or ethnic polarization among students in the school with resulting conflict
12. Substantial numbers of students showing symptoms of poor self concept, alienation or low aspiration level
13. Lack of opportunity or training for in-school experimental, descriptive, or longitudinal research by staff members

14. Lack of professionalism among some staff members including poor preparation for daily duties, excessive absenteeism, and deleterious personal habits such as alcoholism
15. Lack of information system on student cognitive, affective, or psychomotor disabilities, past performance, or aptitudes
16. Poor utilization of professional staff
17. Overemphasis by community and parents on results of standardized tests
18. Shortage of appropriate instructional, library and supplemental materials
19. Attacks on staff members or their property in area surrounding school
20. Difficulty in preparing and submitting federal funding proposals
21. Violence, vandalism, and theft in the school
22. Chronic student physical or mental health problems
23. Lack of assistance, training, or opportunity to develop appropriate instructional or other job-related materials
24. Lack of knowledge among professional staff of community values, resources and conditions
25. Lack of administrative support for staff-initiated innovations
26. Non existent or inadequate grievance procedures in school and district

27. Community residents and parents exhibit prejudice or discrimination in treatment of professional staff
28. Lack of programs and specialists to serve non-traditional students
29. Inequities in school zoning fostering minority group isolation or barriers to special programs
30. Rigidity in formulation or enforcement of state or federally funded program regulations
31. Frequent episodes of student disruption or withdrawal in class
32. Student economic deprivation hindering achievement
33. Lack of training and information regarding impact of learning styles on student performance
34. Lack of faculty communication and mutual assistance
35. Poor administrative and school climate for staff collaboration and planning
36. Questionable student grouping or streaming practices
37. Failure to define or observe student and parent rights
38. Drab and depressing work environments or unsuitable workplaces
39. Lack of incentives for faculty self-improvement
40. Lack of continuity in funded programs
41. Chronic student truancy, tardiness, and cutting of classes
42. Poor student home circumstances
43. Evident faculty difficulties in managing a learning

environment

44. Faculty opposition to or lack of experience in collaborative planning and program development

45. Programming or staff development handicaps because of school size

46. Lack of administrator or staff familiarity with public relations techniques

47. Lack of school services for all interested community residents

48. Lack of dissemination of information to faculty on promising innovations

49. Lack of school board or central administration consultation with staff members or their representatives in educational planning and policy making

50. Disagreement with educational approaches and programs advocated by state or federal government

ASSESSMENT SCORING GUIDE

Total School Faculty Needs Assessment Survey is based on ten (10) factors (problem areas)

1. student behavior
2. pre-existing student conditions
3. staff instructional skills
4. staff interpersonal skills
5. administrative and supervisory procedures

6. school structure and organization
7. community relations
8. program or facility funding
9. personnel practices and working conditions
10. state and federal constraints

Factor (Problem) Score Sheet

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
1______	2_______	3_______	4_______	5_______
11_______	12_______	13_______	7_______	15_______
21_______	22_______	23_______	14_______	25_______
31_______	32_______	33_______	34_______	35_______
41_______	42_______	43_______	44_______	48_______
Total _____	Total _____	Total _____	Total _____	Total _____

Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10
6_______	17_______	8_______	9_______	10_______
16_______	24_______	18_______	19_______	20_______
29_______	27_______	28_______	26_______	30_______
36_______	37_______	38_______	39_______	40_______
45_______	46_______	47_______	49_______	50_______
Total _____	Total _____	Total _____	Total _____	Total _____

Factor (Problem) Scoring Summary Sheet

Factor Score Totals

1) Student behavior __________
2) Pre-existing student conditions __________
3) Staff instructional skills __________
4) Staff interpersonal skills __________
5) Administrative and supervisory procedures __________
6) School structure and organization __________
7) Community relations __________
8) Program or facility funding __________
9) Personnel practices and working conditions __________
10) State and Federal constraints __________

Factor (Problem) Rankings

List the factors beginning with the one receiving the highest score and ending with the one receiving the lowest score. This ranking represents respondents' estimate of the severity of surveyed problems.

1) __________
2) __________
3) __________
4) __________
5) __________
6) __________
7) __________
8) __________
9) __________
10) __________

FOOTNOTES

[1] Phi Delta Kappa, *Workshop Packet for Educational Goals and Objectives: A Model Program for Community and Professional Involvement*, Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., no date.

[2] John N. Mangieri and David R. McWilliams, "Designing an Effective Inservice Program," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Summer, 1976, Vol. 28, No. 2, pg. 111.

[3] Harry Gottesfeld, *Educational Values Assessment (E.V.A.) Questionnaire*, New York, Behavioral Publications, 1973.

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SCHOOL DESIGN AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Muriel R. Vogel

SCHOOL

The building is new
This school has open classrooms
This school is the joint

Intermediate School 137, the Angelo Patri School, is an open space facility in a multi-ethnic, low socio-economic neighborhood on 182nd Street and Webster Avenue in the Bronx. The residents of this area experience a surfeit of noise and congestion arising from heavy traffic and crowded, deteriorating living conditions in slum and high-rise project housing. The school stands as an oasis amidst gutted buildings, rubble strewn streets and endless rows of garages and industrial warehouses.

The physical facility was the culmination of a dream shared by Dr. Theodore Wiesenthal, Superintendent of District 10, and his curriculum supervisors. Dr. Wiesenthal, the supervisors, and the teachers and architects of I.S. 137 decided after several meetings that the school design would reflect the basic underlying philosophy of open education. This would be accomplished through a careful structuring of the educational environment and an understanding of its nature and impact on the educational process.

THE TEACHING AREAS

The school is built on three levels into the side of a hill. On each level is a subschool containing two floors, and the six floor structure is unified by a central core, a main staircase and a common elevator.

In each subschool there is a large, open room separated by dividers into teaching areas. The students are grouped in cluster arrangements in which four teachers work together in teaching different subject areas, with support personnel, so that youngsters and teachers alike can identify their cluster area as home base. There are four such clusters within each subschool, with children grouped heterogeneously. The arrangement of traffic patterns creates little need for going outside the area, except to areas of specialization such as shop. The cluster arrangement enables block parallel programs to be developed, wherein the cluster teacher meets only the children in his or her cluster for academic work. This arrangement also permits the scheduling of cluster conferences with the subschool administrator so that teacher training and group planning can take place.

The physical feeling of the teaching area is best described by F. A. Brunetti (1970) as being "composed of instructional areas without interior walls ranging in size from two to over thirty equivalent classrooms." The open space creates a problem of dealing with highly visible masses of people with higher noise levels, requiring, for student and teacher alike, more awareness of the presence of other people. The same physical space must satisfy the need for quiet spaces for individual pursuits and provide the area for group interaction.

THE EFFECT ON THE TEACHERS

An open space setting requires specially-trained teachers whose attitudes and perceptions will be in tune with those of their fellow teachers and their common open environment. As Robert B. Innes (1972) stated, "If a teacher is rigid and unable to bend to the rhythms of the group, or if he cannot accept observation by others, he will not succeed in an open-space school."

Inherent in the evolution of the I.S. 137 learning environment has been the emphasis on in-service experiences (interactions, human relations encounters, workshops) which articulated the capacity of each teacher to exhibit the qualities necessary to the setting. Training not elitism made the faculty coalesce.

The teachers at Angelo Patri School have responded to the open school design in varying ways. A small core of the Junior High School staff had freely elected to become part of the Angelo Patri School faculty because they were interested in open education and excited about the prospect of teaching and learning in such an environment. This group of teachers has experimented with the new curriculum, teaching strategies and utilization of space. Although they have endured great frustration and worked beyond their expectations, at the end of their first year they have experienced a sense of growth and development that could not have been achieved without their personal struggle and commitment. The children sense this commitment and excitement in their teachers and respond by rewarding their teachers with good work.

For new teachers who were sent to the Angelo Patri School because of New York City's financial crisis and who are not there by choice, the experience has been upsetting and requires a period of adjustment. The techniques which worked in an isolated, self-contained rows and seats classroom work less well because the new environment is designed for other techniques. While teachers develop a sense of boundary, structure and closure to be effective, they cannot be effective by isolating themselves in an open environment. This group of teachers is learning to utilize the open environment through team or cluster reinforcement of the rules of the school, the sharing of ideas, the integration of strategies and curriculum and learning to work towards the individual child's strength. Cluster meetings have helped the teaching staff to develop ways to support each other, using teacher trainers to explore new strategies and techniques that work better in the open environment.

For the teacher, the most important learning experience is to develop an awareness of which children are in which area and for what reason. By learning to inventory which materials and supplies are being used, an easier sense of order and trust is fostered. By learning to create situations in which the children are trusted, the teacher helps the children learn to be trustworthy.

An analytical approach to the educational process and the use of open space seems to help the teacher. The objective for each teacher is to combine space arrangement with curriculum needs which require small group teaching time, large group work and individualization. Ideally, cluster teachers should plan together towards maximum utilization of an entire space shared by a cluster. The problems that the teachers experience collectively and individually will provide them with the opportunity to inquire, discover their own collective and individual strengths and weaknesses, and work out solutions.

THE EFFECT ON CHILDREN

For a child living in turmoil, an open space school can be a haven or a hell. If teachers structure the learning situation so that the children have points of reference, a sense of organization, and meaning and purpose in their environment, then the possibilities for the child's growth and expansion are great. But if the open space becomes chaotic and without structure, then the school setting replicates the turmoil at home which inhibits the child from learning.

For the children in an open environment, movement takes on a purpose; if everything is assigned to a place, there will be less confusion. The setting up of predictable and consistent routines is necessary to foster independence and trust.

The teacher must keep the open area from becoming too crowded, because children need a sense of space and territory. The aesthetic environment in the building sets a tone; when combined with purposeful instruction, there are enormous possibilities for learning in open space.

As Zlutnick & Altman (1972) stated, "It appears necessary for people to be able to establish boundaries around themselves to maintain their psychological integrity, protect their environment and space and manage interactions with others."

An informal assessment of how children have responded to the open building was given by one of them:

"I love the school and the equipment and the shops. I feel they trust us. I don't have to be locked up in a room. I'm not closed in so I won't go crazy. I learn better - a lot has to do with the openness."

The division of the large school building into three subschools develops the intimacy and personalization which enables people to feel a sense of personal worth and permits personal knowledge between teachers and children. The civility in living and sharing together develops feelings of trust. The specialized rooms for science, dance, art, shop, etc. permit in-depth intensive programs for children with special interests, and fulfill the strategy of "learning by doing." The atmosphere of openness, the provision of special rooms with special teachers, teaches the children much about the world they live in - the school is encouraging their participation in life, and is providing them with the raw material to shape their own maturity and knowledge.

ADAPTING THE IDEAS OF OPEN SPACE

Among the staff of the Angelo Patri School is the small core of teachers who initially received training in open education in the years 1972 and 1973. In their continuing experiences they have developed strategies for dealing with open space that teachers may incorporate into management schemes of classrooms with walls and doors:

1) Use the least amount of furniture for the greatest number of children that can work comfortably in an arrangement. A closed room can have physical areas without a seat for every child. There can be open floor areas for sitting and manipulative work. The more uncluttered physical space available to the child, the more comfortable and less confined he will feel.

2) Set up learning centers or area divisions in such a

way that when children come into an area, they feel a sense of organization, meaning and purpose. Chairs, tables and bulletin boards should be so organized within the classroom that the children have everything available to them for their activities.

3) Foster a sense of independence by using labels wherever possible to signify where things are to be found. If the child doesn't have to ask the teacher, he becomes more involved in his own educational processes. In this way, the teacher may develop the exploratory nature of the child and reduce his dependency on adult authority.

4) Organize supplies and materials so that they are adjacent to where the children work, to minimize the amount of random movement in an area.

5) Schedule both required and optional activities, so that children are given the freedom of choice and a sense of control, yet they also learn what is required by the educational system. The idea that certain things are required and certain things are optional becomes a learning and living experience for the child.

6) Change the physical environment or tempo of the schedule for the sake of variety, when certain activities are no longer stimulating to the children.

Because of the open space, excessive noise and excitement from activities may carry and go through area to area, setting off unrest among the children. In the initial stages of the program, the children were apt to get out of control, requiring that the teachers institute a system of restraints to counteract the potential for chaos. During cluster conferences, the teachers expressed their frustrations with the noise and their inability to maintain control when the absence of doors and walls was contributing to the spread of disorder.

In response to this need, one of the teacher trainers developed a contractual structure involving the child, his teacher, his cluster teachers, his dean,his principal,and his parents in a set of expectations and guidelines for the child's behavior. The child is made aware that he has the ultimate responsibility for fulfilling this contract. By treating him in this adult fashion, all of these authority figures help the child to understand his obligations and to gain self control.*

THE NEED FOR STRUCTURE

According to Proshansky (1970), the physical setting of the school evokes complex human responses in the form of feelings, values, expectancies and desires. The order that the teacher creates for the student "out there" in the classroom environment is transformed into an "inner world" that is orderly.

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*See Appendix.

The beauty of the building gives the students the message that someone cares about them and they are worthy. The students are responding positively to this message. However, feeling good about the school does not guarantee that the children will learn. Children must be motivated, must share in a clear definition of goals, and must develop behaviors to achieve the proposed goals. Teachers must be committed to the principles that children, not structures, are the most important components of the school, and that the school is there for the children to learn.

Just as education is an ongoing process, determining the most effective use of a school must continue from the day the building opens. Just as teachers must devise alternative strategies for the teaching-learning process to occur, in the use of open space, adjustments may be required, furnishings reassigned and planning reevaluated. As N. Jane Hirt (1975) states it, "Educational spaces should change with the educational program - there is a two way relationship between environment and behavior."

Let it be remembered, however, that physical design is really an ancilla to the human organism which is the teacher-student learning relationship. Providing an open space building or open classrooms is no guarantee of an open educational process. Spatial changes can only make a difference if people are capable of actualizing the creative possibility of the environment.

APPENDIX

THE ANGELO PATRI SCHOOL*

Intermediate School #137
225 Webster Ave., Bronx, New York 10457
Telephone (212) 220-8461

John Garafalo
Principal

Dear

In order to help your child, ____________________ improve ____ performance at the Angelo Patri School, the cluster teachers, the dean and the sub-school coordinator have worked out a contract that your child has promised to fulfill.

We have enclosed a copy of your child's contract so that you too are aware of ____ efforts and ours.

Sincerely,

John Garafalo
Principal

JG:DF

Enc.

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* Developed by J. Ancess.

THE ANGELO PATRI SCHOOL*

I.S. 137X

John Garafalo, Principal
Paul Horowitz, Assistant Principal

Date ___________

I, ____________________, agree to do the following things when I am in school:

1. Bring my notebook to each class.
2. Bring my pen or pencil to each class.
3. Complete the work and homework assigned for each day in each class.
4. Not curse.
5. Treat teachers and other students the way I want to be treated.

I understand what I must do, and I promise to do these things.

Signature ____________________

---

*Developed by J. Ancess

Am I doing what I promised to do today?*

Name ____________________ Class ____________________ Date ____________________

Mods

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
I brought my notebook.																
I brought my pen or pencil.																
I sat in my seat.																
I stayed in my seat.																
I raised my hand for permission to leave my seat.																
I completed my work.																
I did not run or play tag.																
Teacher																

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*Developed by J. Ancess

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LAKE COMO TO FROST VALLEY: AN IN-SERVICE "LIFESHOP"

John Garafalo
Cologero Marasca

This paper will discuss two related in-service workshops held in August and December of 1975 prior to the official occupancy of the new open space, open education facility, The Angelo Patri School, I.S. 137X. Both workshops played an important role in enabling a new faculty to cope with adverse circumstances, surrounding that school opening, to generate a sense of purpose and unity, and to find their bearings in relation to an alternative educational approach with which many of them had little or no acquaintance.

THE PROBLEM

The adverse circumstances stemmed from the following:

* the school's scheduled fall opening was delayed almost four months so that, for most of the fall term, staff and students operated as an appendage to two other schools
* budget cuts in fall, 1975 caused substantial turnover in the school organization and increased the need for training teachers unfamiliar with open education
* the original school staff, selected in the spring of 1975, was, largely recruited from other District 10 schools but did not necessarily include people with specific training for service in an open education

facility

- many of the professionals were strangers to each other and for all practical purposes, to the newly selected school administration
- no opportunity for the group to meet or for in-service training had existed in the term preceding the open- of this school
- in short, accidents of history, temporal delay, and the ironies of a buyer's market had created, for these professionals, a crisis of confidence, purpose and resource which had to be confronted. Any new school opening will present problems and will drain the energies of professional staff. This particular situation was exceptional: a new building with innovative challenging design, an alternative education style, a staff not trained in the techniques and substantial personnel turnover, it was a mix rich with the ingredients of catastrophe.

The workshop at Lake Como in August, 1975 was a response to these problems which used a human relations modality to overcome deficits both in morale and training. The subsequent Frost Valley session extended that approach by integrating the Parents Association and Student Council into the experience and combining techniques of group interaction with more substantive curricular content.

LAKE COMO

The basic responsibility for the structure and direction of the five-day workshop-retreat at Lake Como in late August, 1975, was assumed by the principal of the school-to-be. The week was funded by a grant from Teacher Corps and took place in a camp setting. Some of the goals were simple and innocent. Bringing together teachers, teacher-trainers, district administrators, and cooperating Fordham University-Teacher Corps personnel who would have an on-going relationship to the in-service programs at the school, would permit professional colleagues to become acquainted, to share social as well as serious activiities and to exchange feelings and ideas in an essentially informal pleasant setting. Other goals were more sophisticated. Was it possible to imbue the group with a high sense of purpose, a feeling of community, an optimism? Could this diverse assemblage begin to take on a unified, concretely purposeful and outer-directed commitment?

The workshop content was aimed an encouraging the articulation of concerns, and anxieties, and at beginning to shape an understanding of the nature of the new school and its purpose. Here, for example, is the simple agenda for the first meeting which provided the basis for initial communication:

MONDAY, AUGUST 18, 1975

WORKSHOP I

Why are we here?

How will this serve us, the children, the School?

What is I.S. 137-X?

Why was it conceived?

How will it try to meet the needs?

(Compare to present or other schools - if you wish)

Discussion was moderated by the principal and emphasis was placed on non-judgmental, supportive acceptance of each participant's views and feelings. This was to be the dominant mode of approach in the workshops even when the discussion became more substantive.

THE OUTCOME

Essentially, the effort at Lake Como was directed to involving the prospective faculty and support personnel in an

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*Here are additional topical and techincal activities from the workshop which show them becoming increasingly concrete:

a) From Workshop II: "Discuss ... and develop by con sensus a group priority list of childrens' needs"... How can your priorities co-exist ... vis-a-vis the group's priorities?"

b) From Workshop III: "What are your teaching priorities?"

c) From Workshop IV: "How can we use the resources ... children, parents and community effectively? ... What are some techniques you would like to explore at I.S. 137? How can they be implemented, monitored, modified?

interaction process which would move from informal attitudinizing to formal thinking about the challenge to be faced. It was an experiment in communication which began with the "I" of each participant and moved by means of dialogue and a structure which encouraged consensus to a concept of "we" which became the guiding principle of the school. Content was secondary to process and the human relations component precedent to the subject-matter concerned.

Having gone through five days of often intense exploration of each person's relationship to the new school, the students, and each other as professionals and human beings, the workshop members came away with a sense of direction and a feeling of group commitment. They came to look to each other for support and felt more secure knowing that common goals had been generated. They had learned that in order to accomplish goals and objectives, they had to have priorities which served the needs of the group. They knew that nothing could be accomplished without prior planning, design of strategies, unified execution of plans, joint evaluation of outcomes and modification for improvement by consensus. Thus, the workshops functioned as paradigm for the educational and administrative task that lay before them. The form of their endeavor had been shaped and was ready to be embodied by the content of learning tools and strategies. An additional benefit was the ability of the participants to readily communicate and share the sense of unified purpose derived from the week, with faculty unable to attend. The open education process had begun by opening the educators to each other with trust and respect.

In short, the experience at Lake Como fulfilled a two-fold design: establishing activity of purpose and creating an affective environment conducive to mature staff relations and creative joint staff endeavor.

FROST VALLEY

The Frost Valley retreat occurred on a weekend in December, 1975 just as I.S. 137X became ready to open. Funded by a Fordham University Teacher Corps budget modification, the weekend brought together school administration and faculty, Fordham University Teacher Corps personnel, Parents Association representatives and Student Council members.

GOALS

The primary purposes of this workshop away from the school site were:

a) to enable each role group to define its function and direction

b) to leap the barriers between groups through dialogue and surfacing of agendas

c) to unify the school family.

The image of the Frost Valley undertaking that has stayed with the participants ever since centered around the delicate problem of freeing each role group from its stereotypical relationship to each other group. They came to regard the weekend as a "thawing out", as if all of them had permitted the bureaucratic system to lock them in in the same way that the victims of the ice-age had been encased in ice. They had been awaiting a thawing agent and this joint experience generated the warmth necessary to set them free.

STRUCTURE

In fact, the Frost Valley workshop was a practicum in developing a sense of community. Planning for the weekend had included topical input from each group and the workshop-structure was designed to permit intra-group and inter-group dialogue. Much of the effectiveness of the meetings came from the free form nature of the groupings. Parents, for example, were encouraged to attend teacher workshops. Other group members, too, floated across group lines to gain insight into the attitudes and working patterns of staff, parents, students and university personnel.

The meetings were divided into eleven working sessions, several being plenary in structure, most being divided by role groups, a few joining two role groups such as parents and staff. Agenda items were directed to articulating role functions internally and in relation to other groups. For teachers, there was emphasis on the nuts and bolts of teaching and systems in open education.

The flavor and purpose of the sessions can be discerned by examining these agenda items:

L. "Session #3 - What is the role (responsibility) of a Student Council Member? ... How can these responsibilities be carried out?"

2. Teachers - Session #3 - Part III - Group A Experiences in an Activity-Centered Classroom: a) classroom design b) scheduling c) management schemes d) role of teacher e) learning styles and multi-level curriculum"

3. "Session #6 - Part II Parents Only: What do you consider to be the most important aspects of a good school? .... Part III - Teachers - Group A: ... Curriculum Developed for Multi-Level Classes - a) strategies for students with reading problems b) leveling materials c) critiquing the clarity of directions d) learning at the concrete level

4. "Session #7 ... What really turns you on (or off) to school, parents, children, teachers? How can we create more turn-ons?"

5. "Session #8 - Feedback on #7 . . . (Encourage groups to interact.")

In the course of the early sessions, a misunderstanding developed between parents and teachers when, as a result of exploratory discussion, it became evident that the parents felt that the staff did not care enough about the children, and were not dedicated. Teachers, in turn, responding defensively asserted that parents were not sending their youngsters to school prepared. While this occurrence was an unexpected element, it proved cathartic and was dealt with constructively within the program structure. By involving themselves in each other's sessions (and as a result of intensive and critical discussion that ran far beyond the scheduled workshop hours, parents and teachers developed a more wholesome respect for each other's attitudes and efforts. The parents gained an insight into the teachers' dedication to preparing for the new school and planning to solve problems. Teachers, in turn, appreciated the serious and constructive interest that parents expressed in helping to resolve the many difficulties that lay ahead.

OUTCOMES

What emerged from this "crisis" and the interaction which followed was brought out in the final evaluation session. While everyone felt that much more needed to be done, they did reach agreement on certain basic accomplishments:

* A mutual appreciation of each group's role had been gained.
* The participants now understood that none of them were perfect and that the human frailties they exhibited were commonly held.
* Everyone shared a solution-seeking rather than blame-placing bias.

* The "thawing-out" process had begun but would require intense continuous, effort to complete.
* There had been attitudinal growth in role definition.
* Curriculum and systems knowledge had grown.
* The interpersonal experience was constructive and should be repeated.

The goals of the weekend conference had been achieved by means of a salubrious environment, a subtlely directive structure, and the chemistry of human interaction.

If "Como" was in-service education education as human relations, then "Frost" was in-service education in being human. Together, these workshop experiences provided staff, parents and students with the strength and unity to make the school work and the form and content of their initial steps into the actual world of open education in the Angelo Patri School.

As one young teacher who had been to Lake Como put it in a poem he wrote after the week of workshops:

> "This was not a workshop the way I had always known it,
> this was a lifeshop."*

It was that sense of life and vitality which made Lake Como and Frost Valley the touchstones of the school to be.

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*Larry Sandomir

STUDENTS' ROLE IN QUALITY EDUCATION

Ronny Neira
Maria Valencia
Bryan Putman
Melvin Munoz
Anna M. Otero
John Arroyo
With Dr. Michael Laboda

(Collaborator's note: The following article is based on a questionnaire given to students at the Angelo Patri School, I.S. 137, in the Bronx. A panel discussion was held following the filling out of the questionnaire to have the students clarify their statements contained in the questionnaire. This article contains findings as to how students see their role in quality education.)

"All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players." This line was written by William Shakespeare some four hundred years ago. It is spoken by the character Jaques, a courtier of the Duke in the play "As You Like It." Jaques views all existence with the detached eye of a mildly displeased spectator at a play, and thus likens the whole world to a theatre. However, this line is not singular to any one age or time in history.

Today, our stage is our school -- the Angelo Patri School. Our scenery includes carpeted floors, open areas, mobile furniture and modern equipment. Our players are the people who populate our school -- our administrators, our teachers, our paraprofessionals, our parent association, and us -- the students.

It is around us, the students, that the whole plot to this drama revolves. What input do we have in this drama? What lines do we speak? What is our role in quality education?

In order to answer these questions, we must first define the elements in quality education: Quality education involves an administration that is well-educated, considerate of our needs, and flexible in all areas concerning our welfare. Quality education involves teachers who are dedicated, compassionate, and interesting, and who care enough about us to see us succeed in the future. Quality education involves paraprofessionals who are ready to help out when the need arises. Quality education involves parents who are understanding of our needs, aware of our shortcomings, and sympathetic to our faults.

Although our administrators, our teachers, our paraprofessionals, and our parents are major factors in quality education, nevertheless, we, the students, must help to develop a valuable course of study that will in turn help us to obtain a better future. We must work together as a team with our leaders to move onward and upward on the educational ladder. This means we must set individual and group responsibilities for ourselves, and strive to meet these responsibilities.

Through the unselfish guidance of our leaders, we are made aware of many of the responsibilities that should govern our role as students. Below are listed some responsibilities that we consider imperative in obtaining a quality education.

1. We should never be satisfied with what we already know. No matter how much we know about one topic, we do not know it all. We may know the A, B, C, and D, but what about the E, F, G, and H? We must continue to push ourselves upward and onward until we are saturated with the knowledge that will help us to succeed in the future.
2. We must learn when to be serious about our work, and when to play. It is not good to be serious all of the time, but it is even worse to play all of the time. There should be an equal balance of fun and work. Teacher X likes to joke with us, and this is good. But he also has a great deal of knowledge and a good many skills to impart to us. Let's let him do his job, and enjoy our studies in the meantime.
3. We should always be good listeners and should show courtesy to our classmates and teachers. We feel that what we have to say is important, and we want others to listen to us. We must remember to listen to them, too. It is all right to disagree, or to have a different opinion. But it is not all right to argue or to "hog the floor."

4. We should show respect for the property of others. Our parents work hard to pay taxes for the books and equipment we use in school Our teachers work hard to prepare materials for us to use. We should work hard to treat the equipment and materials with respect so that other students may use them too. This means that we should not write in the books, or mishandle the filmstrips and projectors, or other equipment that we are using.
5. We should learn to recognize our limits. We would all like to be "A" students. But math may come easier to Mary than it does to John. It may take Anna a week longer than it takes the rest of the class to learn how to divide fractions. We should not be discouraged. With time, learning will come. However, we should not be discouraged from becoming competitive, as we live in a competitive world.
6. We should strive for changes in our academic program when our needs overpower our desires. Many times we need more help in English than we do in science, even though we may like science better than we like English. In this case, we should try to have ourselves programmed for more hours per week of English than of science. However, our programs should remain somewhat balanced so that we can still explore other

subject areas.

7. We should strive to introduce programs concerning our interests in extra-curricular activities. Enrique is interested in horses, but his academic studies do not provide anything along this line. We would like to know more about the things we are interested in. Why not introduce a mini-course to include this interest? Why not form a club with other students having similar interests?

8. We should seek help from parents and teachers in making choices about our futures as well as in resolving other doubts we may have concerning our education. Donna wants to be a nurse. What subjects must she take? What schools offer nursing courses? What requirements does she need to get into these schools? Armando can take either music or art. What careers are open to him in both fields? What talents or aptitudes must he have to succeed in either field?

9. We should always be curious and ask why. Too often we take a person's word for what he says without knowing the reasoning behind his philosophy. It is not an insult, but rather a compliment, to ask a person why he feels the way he does about a certain topic. It shows that we care about him and that we care about ourselves. Why is it important for us to learn

how to write an essay? *Why* must we learn about the digestive system? *Why* should I learn fractions? *Why* does the sun set? *Why* are you angry with me?

10. We must practice self-control at all times. Maria wants to go to the pizza shop with her girlfriends, but she has a Spanish assignment that will take her two hours to complete. What should she do? There is a good program on Channel 7, but Melvin has a speech to write. What should he do? Juanita talks too much in class, and Damaris has a splitting headache. What should Damaris do?
11. We should strive to help each other in groups or in classes. Many times a teacher is busy helping other students when we, too, need attention. We should seek out help from our classmates who might be able to help us. We should also help the classmate seeking out the help. This makes for a happier and healthier classroom unit, and we can learn to work better with others.
12. We must get to school every day and get there on time. Something is happening every day in every class, and if we feel that it is not important enough to get to school, we are the ones who miss out. Good attendance is important for a quality education. This is also good practice for our future. If we are to get

there every day on time.

13. Good behavior is a must in quality education. We all have bad days, but we cannot let our bad days affect others. If we let arguments or fights break out in our classes, we are depriving other students of a quality education. If we are constantly inattentive and disruptive, we are depriving others of a quality education. But, more important, we are depriving ourselves of a quality education.

The responsibilities listed above are only a springboard for many more that we must define for ourselves. At the Angelo Patri School, each student must decide for himself the responsibilities he will set in order to succeed. He cannot let the administration, the teachers, the paraprofessionals, or the parents decide what he must do. He must make his own decision.

The scene to our drama ends at the end of the school day. The act to our drama ends at the end of each marking period. And when the final curtain comes down at the end of the school year, we are still left with one question: Have we, the students, been active, aware, and involved in every phase of our school life? If we can answer, "Yes!" to this question, we have insured our success in our future. We have indeed played our role well in quality education.

AN EDUCATOR'S RESPONSE

Teachers meet students in groups, and students learn from many factors in their environment beside teachers. It is easy to lose sight of these two humble truths, but they are the limits within which we must work in attempting to improve instruction.

The currency of John Dewey's philosophy of education, is due in part to his conception of group activities as a positive basis for learning rather than an unfortunate situation which could not be overcome. Dewey yearned for teachers "saturated in knowledge" (to use the words of the Angelo Patri students). He saw science and humanities as a seamless web which yielded well-planned team projects with increased mastery of traditional school subjects.

The problem was, and is, that few adults are Renaissance men. The learned may see more connections between issues and topics than the less educated, but few in any generation are so knowledgeable as to easily conduct students through any and all student initiated projects with due attention to all the appropriate ways of knowing.

Dewey's vision remains an ideal. Schools may be compartmentalized and teachers may be subject specialists, but these concessions to our frailty should not be viewed as natural or appealing. Students do not usually arrive with an interest in biology, English, history, mathematics or even environmental studies; they like horses or nursing or whatever a favorite teacher likes. The teacher's task is to make a subject area interesting, while adapting instruction, when possible, to include those student interests which can be illuminated by the subject at hand.

Baughman categorizes youth school expectations as:

- opportunities for self-identity
- demanding and understanding teachers
- fun and friends
- rights as citizens
- guidance and direction
- success and peak experiences[1]

The questionnaire summary from the Angelo Patri School parallels Baughman's findings. It constitutes a mandate for in-service education. The knowledgeable teacher has to keep up to date in an area of instruction, be it reading, art, chemistry or creative writing. The teacher also, has to mobilize acquired skills and insights with effective pedagogy. The goal of such training in professional education is to enable the professional to become a versatile teacher, e.g., a teacher who alters the manner and mode of instruction to fit student culture, abilities and environment.

The teacher is also a role model and a source of meaningful adult experience and reflection on the world. Teaching, as Postman and Weingartner explain, is a subversive activity.[2]

The teacher exists in a bureaucratic setting but can only make contact with students if complete impartiality, routinization, and uniformity are avoided. There is conflict between institutional norms and student expectations.[3] In effect, the teacher humanizes the school.

As more is learned in the field of environmental psychology, the desire for humanistic institutions becomes more attainable. Structures speak of concern or indifference, openness or defensiveness, flexibility or rigidity and centrality or delegation of authority. The versatile teacher can make use of favorable elements in the school building and school community. The teacher-trainer can alert school managers to the advantages of environments which improve school class climate.

Too many rules and too much management seem to frustrate learning. People who play a role in running an organization take greater interest in the well-being of the organization. Teachers and students need life space and a share in decision-making. Students are non-recurring events; it is impossible to predict every outcome, and instructional systems which rely heavily on programmed actions and reactions shortchange teachers and students.

In economics, schooling is referred to as labor intensive because the bulk of district expenditures go for salaries. It would be more accurate to call schooling concern intensive.

Teachers need training in helping students maintain a positive self-concept and providing them with worthwhile sources of recognition. Teachers also communicate an attitude towards school and learning.[4] A love for learning, an enduring curiosity may persist long after a novel, an equation, or a date in history are forgotten.

Dewey would approve of individualization of instruction insofar as learning packages don't replace people. Learning involves risk-taking - the motivation must still be provided by the faculty. Students may benefit from working at their own pace, as long as the slower students aren't free to work even more slowly.[5] Students learn from each other, the community, and countless other stimuli. The Angelo Patri students undoubtedly learned from their exercise in examining their own education; Dewey would have liked that.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Dale Baughman, What Do Students Really Want? (Bloomington, In.: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972).

[2] Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, Teaching As a Subversive Activity (New York: Delacorte Press, 1969).

[3] Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: Russell and Russell, 1961).

[4] Michael J. Dunkin and Bruce A. Biddle, The Study of Teaching (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974), pp. 357-404.

[5] William C. Norris, "Via Technology to a New Era in Education," Kappan, Vol. 58, No. 6, see also the comment of Charles Benson, p. 458.

THE SCHOOL-BASED TRAINER OF TEACHERS

Arline Weisberg

The teacher as trainer is a fairly recent phenomenon in the New York City school system although its roots go back to the earliest two-room schoolhouse and the first publications by teachers for teachers. Sharing of successful experiences has always been part of the history of teaching and with the advent of mass media, sharing of the failures has become all too common.

Preservice teachers were trained by universities and teacher training colleges and in-services teachers perfected their skills and improved their status by choosing from a variety of in-service courses. Those courses, taught both by school and university people, were usually geared to teaching in general and rarely dealt with specific needs. In fact, personalizing the topic was usually frowned upon and discouraged.

Many of the earlier teacher trainers were "demonstration" or master teachers, using a series of prototype lessons to illustrate the various teaching skills. The success of those lessons and the subsequent success of the trainee could usually be measured by a checklist or sliding scale. The structure of the lesson itself became all important as if teaching was a construction technique.

Teacher training in 1977 is vastly different from those earlier experiences. Rather than starting with a prototype lesson, or a group of teachers, training starts with an individual teacher facing unique groups of thirty or thirty-five students. Training begins with the teacher's hopes, fears, aspirations, personality and talents and the student's abilities, experiences and attitudes. From this beginning, teaching styles which accommodate both teacher and learner develop to support individual preferences and differences. The classroom provides a foundation of successful experiences from which a teacher can draw to meet new situations and the accretion of experience permits the phasing out of the training aspect and the formation of a partnership relation.

WHAT A TRAINER DOES

What actually does a teacher trainer do? A teacher trainer motivates teachers to look at themselves carefully as facilitators of learning. A good trainer guides the teacher through an analysis of the teaching process, always starting with the teacher's perception of what he is doing and why he is presenting this particular material to this particular child at this particular time.

Some of the questions considered are:

- What do you want to accomplish?
- Can you state your goals in behavioral terms?
- Have you assessed your students? How?
- Have you provided for various levels of ability?

- Does your room arrangement facilitate what you are trying to accomplish?
- Have you communicated to your students what they are expected to accomplish?
- Is there a balance among whole class, small group and individual instruction? between independent and teacher-dominant activities? among oral, written and manipulative activities?
- How do you provide for sharing?
- What is your procedure for record-keeping?
- How do you and your students evaluate what has been achieved?

Any of the above questions might be the starting point of a relationship between a trainer and a teacher, dependent upon what the teacher deems to be most important. Just as the good teacher diagnoses the students' abilities and observes the students' learning styles in order to provide compatible experiences, so does the good trainer proceed with the teacher. The teacher trainer helps the teacher:

- to clearly identify her goals;
- to develop diagnostic devices of various kinds;
- to evolve a management scheme that best serves the class goals;
- to develop a variety of instructional strategies;
- to arrange the learning environment;

* to evaluate the students' progress;

* to provide maximum learning opportunities.

A great deal of this direction is provided on site at the teacher's own pace and in a climate of supportive encouragement. The schools in District 10 are staffed with teachers with at least five years of experience, whose teaching styles have proven successful in formal, traditional schools. When the open space designed I.S. 137 opened in January of 1976, it soon became evident that many of these successful techniques would not work in an open space facility. In an open space, teachers found that working together works better. For the first time, teachers discovered that they had to talk to each other to decide upon consistent routines and requirements for the four classes which made up the cluster and which shared contiguous open space. For some teachers this is difficult to do. It is incumbent upon the teacher-trainer to assure that each member has a definite role and is made to feel comfortable as a contributing part of the larger group.

Particularly in an open space facility, where the school is only as strong as its weakest link because everyone is interdependent, it is most important to encourage teachers whose traditional styles have become established to entertain change. The out-of-control class in a corner of an open space setting is a catalyst for restlessness and inattention to every class in the vicinity. The strengthening of skills necessary to work productively in open space for the teacher of that class becomes important to all the surrounding teachers. The teacher-trainer must try to gradually effect small modifications which will benefit the entire group. One way to do this is to schedule weekly cluster conferences as an integral part of the teaching program. The group meets at a specified time each week with the teacher-trainer. The teacher-trainer prepares an agenda which incorporates at least one aspect of curriculum or management along with administrative and disciplinary matters for each session. The members of the cluster also have an opportunity to present their individual or collective agendas. Many times, by creating a warm, supportive climate at the cluster conferences, the teacher trainer is able to elicit enough positive peer response to effect some small measure of change. The weekly conference also supplies the teacher-trainer with a direct link to everything that is happening in the classrooms so that she can better evaluate the success of her efforts and modify her plans for the following week.

TEACHER TRAINING AT ANGELO PATRI SCHOOL

The teacher-trainer who is based in a school has the decided advantage of having to live with her decisions on a daily basis. There is no more accurate proving ground than the classroom itself. One strategy or technique can be tried with various groups and modified to suit the needs of each. It also enables this partnership of teacher and trainer to assume the quality of permanence so necessary for significant growth.

At I.S. 137, an open space intermediate school opened in January, 1976, the principal, an assistant principal, two teacher-trainers and two Teacher Corp Learning Managers share the role of teacher training. One teacher-trainer is based in the Resource Room and services the school as a whole, with advice on materials and techniques and offers assistance on an individual basis. One Learning Manager is designated to facilitate the strategies developed by the teacher-trainers throughout the school, functioning like a district office trainer on a smaller scale. The assistant principal, the second Learning Manager and the second teacher-trainer are designated as heads of Sub-schools and are responsible for teacher training within the sub-schools. Thus, I.S. 137 has incorporated various structures of teacher training into the organization of a single school unit and has integrated this training within the school day. The unique organizational pattern of I.S. 137, with its three subschools within the school, makes it possible to have training occur both horizontally and vertically. The cluster arrangement, with four disciplines forming a cluster, and the assignment of four clusters within a subschool, allows for a development not only in the subject discipline taught, but also, in an interdisciplinary manner. It is possible to plan a workshop in the use of media for all four disciplines in a cluster using an interdisciplinary theme and, then, with a slight shift of emphasis, gear that same workshop to meet the needs of the social studies teachers in the subschool or in the entire school. The trainers meet weekly with the principal to coordinate their efforts, to clarify directions and to share administrative problems so that teacher training and administration are dovetailed.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT ANGELO PATRI

The teacher training program at I.S. 137 places great emphasis upon curriculum development as a medium whereby teachers may experience not only the process of the learning experience, but also develop a product for immediate use in the classroom. During a four-week summer program, curriculum packets, which reflect all the aspects of the teacher training process, were developed in all the academic disciplines. New curriculum units are growing out of the daily experiences of teachers in classrooms but reflect the influence of the teacher-trainer.

First, teachers are asked to identify a broad theme or topic to encompass what they are presently teaching or what they intend to teach next. This very simple, initial identification allows many teachers to begin to group their instruction more purposefully. The next step is to state the skills, concepts, and understandings the students will derive from the unit of work. For our purposes, the concept is the term which necessitates definition and the understanding in the broader grasp of the total picture. Therefore, in a study of the role of the Boston Tea Party in American history, the concepts would be taxation and revolt, and the understanding might be that when people are unjustly oppressed, they traditionally offer some form of concerted resistance. This process of identifying the skills, concepts and understandings is designed to create points of reference for the instructional strategies which will follow and to lead teachers into long-range planning.

The teachers are then asked to state their objectives behaviorally and, in addition, to prepare a checklist for the students so that both teacher and student are absolutely clear as to what will be accomplished.

Once teachers have worked through where they want to go, the next step is how to get there. Of sixty-eight instructional strategies brainstormed by thirty teachers at a training session, it was found that only twenty-two were used by some teachers some of the time and only eight were used by most teachers most of the time. The eight techniques most frequently used were lecture, class discussion, filmstrip, individual worksheets, textbook readings and questions, homework, committee work and individual reporting. Clearly, the job of the teacher-trainer is to encourage teachers to vary their classroom techniques by becoming proficient in the use of other instructional strategies.

One important aspect of curriculum development is some form of diagnosis. The word "pretest" all too often suggests to teachers a written activity *testing* the students on how much they already know of the material to be taught. Here the job of the trainer is to present other forms of pretest such as task-oriented, observation, discussion or game, and to help the teacher devise diagnostic devices which *do not* test the materials to be taught but *do* help to ascertain whether the students have assimilated a *foundation* for learning the new materials.

For example, a mathematics teacher is preparing to teach a unit entitled: "The Use, Understanding and Construction of Bar Graphs."

A. *Concepts*: survey, tally, data (raw and organized) comparison, contrast, horizontal, vertical, scale, axes.

B. *Understandings*:

1. Bar graphs are used to organize and summarize data.
2. Bar graphs are a source of information.
3. Bar graphs show comparisons and contrasts of large amounts of data in a small space.

C. *Skills*:

1. How to read a bar graph
2. How to organize data

3. How to construct a bar graph
4. How to determine scale for a graph
5. How to conduct a survey

A pretest for this unit of work might include arranging series of numbers in sequence from least to most, counting by tens, twenties, fifties, arranging a group of dates in chronological order and taking a survey of the favorite television program of ten people. These types of exercises, presented as either pencil and paper activities or tasks, would help the teacher determine which students are ready to start the unit and which students need additional practice in the foundation activities. At the conclusion of the teaching of the unit, a much more comprehensive test or series of tasks should be presented to see if the students have successfully mastered the skills and understood the concepts and understandings.

At the same time that the trainer is guiding the teacher through the development of curriculum, she is also helping the teacher to arrange her classroom, group her children and find materials relevant to the current unit. Here, too, the process is all important. "Give a man a fish and he has food for one meal. Teach him to fish and he has food for a lifetime."

Support is the key, albeit nebulous word, when applied to teacher training. It has as many meanings as the number of people the trainer attempts to work with. It can vary from "supporting" a teacher little by little through every step of the process to the "support" of listening to a teacher's plans and offering suggestions. The support, however, must never become a crutch and must change, as soon as possible, into a partnership to develop more effective teaching in a school.

EFFECTIVE TEACHER TRAINING

The teacher as trainer is most effective when working with teachers on an individual basis in the existing classroom setting. Where teachers selected or have volunteered to work with the trainer, cooperation is more likely to take place. Since teachers in the system have developed an infinite number of teaching styles which have evolved from an equally infinite number of personalities and preference, coupled with the different degrees of professional commitment to growth and change, one of the prime qualifications of the teacher as trainer is the ability to relate to each individual on his own level and in his own terms.

In establishing a new relationship with an individual teacher, it is inevitable that the teacher begins by viewing the trainer as the support. The relationship of teacher-trainer to trainee is a unique situation. Here is an interested colleague, available to help in improving the art of teaching, ready to concentrate upon the trainee's own special problems and to offer tailor-made solutions which can be implemented immediately in the classroom with the students for which they were devised. In addition, the trainer is a peer, so that the prejudices and attitudes of supervision need never intrude upon the partnership. It is also possible, in this kind of relationship, to be unsuccessful, to analyze the failure and to build a better support as a result. However, if the teacher trainer does not have a vast storehouse of firsthand experiences to draw upon, experiences that encompass the viewpoints of the students, the parents, teachers, supervisors, outside agencies and the community at large in a multitude of situations, the relationship soon fizzles out and credibility is lost. In short, the teacher-trainer must have both the ability to analyze teaching situations quickly, thoroughly and accurately and the judgment to match up, from an extensive background of experience, teaching styles, strategies and techniques, those which best suit the personality, style and commitment of the trainee. This ability stems from a variety of positions held and situations experienced prior to assuming the role of teacher-trainer and from communication with teacher-trainers all over the country. It is also important, at the beginning of a relationship, to build a foundation of positive experiences for both the teacher and the children. This strong base of success provides a sturdy support for trying and incorporating or discarding new strategies.

There is another quality, equally important if the teacher trainer is to succeed. A good trainer expects people to change.

Change involves an initial period of introspection, doubt, insecurity, and above all, hard work. The teacher-trainer must be able to communicate an enthusiasm for the art of teaching and a sense of the structure and the logic of the task to the trainee. If teachers are expected to grow, the aspects of growth must be presented as advantageous, desirable experiences.

One of the problems which school-based teacher-trainers will encounter along with other out-of-classroom personnel is the involvement in many of the administrative aspects of running a school thus diminishing the time available for working with teachers. A creative teacher-trainer, caught up in the administrative complexity, can use this administrative experience to become more sensitive to overall school priorities and problems. A first-hand knowledge of what supports are available to a school is an invaluable aid in planning training programs.

Teacher-trainer, is first and foremost, a teacher. The position of teacher-trainer is designed to provide a support system for the in-service training of teachers on a continuous basis. Teacher and trainer differ only in that the recipient of the instruction is different. Moreover, as a peer, the teacher-trainer can not but be non-evaluative in relationship with the teacher, psychologically supportive but never judgmental in the rating sense. It is neither unreasonable nor immodest to suggest that the teacher and teacher-trainer relationship may be the most basic and compelling method of improving instruction. To make this key role more effective, the trainer should be the conduit of knowledge on educational technique and innovation developing outside the school site.

Last and most important, it is well to remember that change which a teacher-trainer seeks to bring about is, ultimately, designed to reach beyond the teacher to make pupil growth possible.

Curriculum Development -

Goals and Strategies

by Jacqueline Ancess

As curriculum writers and teachers, we seek the elusive interaction of process and content. We strive to make possible the magic moment of learning when, for the first time, the student experiences the integration of particles of information into his unique frame of reference and achieves a rediscovery of self and world. Curriculum development takes as its task the provision of structure in order to actualize that moment for each child.

Any in-service program which has curriculum development as its core must address a range of theoretical and practical questions. Ultimately, the clarity and depth with which these questions are resolved will determine the success of curriculum development and implementation by teachers, the transferability of that material to other teachers, and the impact of the curriculum on students. Since it is the primary purpose of this paper to discuss in-service curriculum development with teachers, it is essential to recognize that questions such as those below must be answered before a teacher can develop appropriate curricular materials:

- What is curriculum, what is its purpose?
- What does the teacher want students to learn? Why?
- What, indeed is learning? How does one assess the degree to which it has occurred?

- How do students for whom a specific curriculum is intended learn?
- What are the strengths and limitations of the instructional environment?
- What is the teacher's role, generally, and specifically, in relation to curriculum development?

At the Angelo Patri School, curriculum is viewed as both a vehicle and an end in itself. The curriculum as content and activity is the means through which the teacher can determine the students' skills and critical and logical thinking and problem solving, their learning styles, strengths and weaknesses, and their abilities to perform those mental operations integral to the learning process from recall to synthesis. Curriculum is an end in and of itself in that it contains a body of knowledge and a set of skills that have been deemed valuable by our society which regards it as advantageous to possess this knowledge and these skills in order to be successful and competent in school and society. Moreover, the extent of the acquisition of this knowledge and the mastery of skills defines a child in terms of success or failure and affects the child's sense of identity and self-worth. Ultimately, it will determine the choices which the child will make in life.

Curriculum design and development at Angelo Patri is made possible, in part, by a foundation and support system which was initiated three years earlier by the superintendent and his staff in an effort to train teachers in open education techniques and concepts. Much of the groundwork was accomplished by a joint effort of district staff, supervisors and teachers aided by cooperating university personnel. An open education committee of teachers from the district's seven junior high schools met monthly on released time to share knowledge about curriculum, scheduling, and teaching strategies and to plan and facilitate intervisitation among teachers in the district. What was learned in those early years formed the base upon which the school now builds, and, were it not for the staff losses due to the city's financial crisis, many more of that original cadre of fifty teachers would now be working at Angelo Patri.

The pupil population of I.S. 137X is composed of seventh and eighth graders, 80% of whom have degrees of reading problems. With its 99% minority population and its low socio-economic environment, I.S. 137X shares the problems of other inner city schools. Of the staff which inaugurated this open space complex, only 20% had had prior training in open education. To partially overcome this training vacuum, the principal created a modular schedule which provided time within the work week for in-service training sessions and mini-courses in which teachers implemented new techniques. In addition, Fordham Teacher Corps provided personnel for on-going training as well as funding for two workshops away from the city.

The principal and a volunteer curriculum committee of teachers and administrative staff met for four months to discuss curriculum. The following guidelines resulted:

- The recommendations of the New York State curriculum would be followed, for aside from being sound and comprehensive, they would enable students to be competitive in college and life.
- Curriculum would be standardized to secure a continuity of content and developmental process from 7th to 8th grade.
- Flexibility would be encouraged so that teachers could determine topics consonant with their own talents, interests and styles conjoined with the needs of their students.
- Variation in growth rate for both teachers and pupils would be recognized.
- Curriculum would be designed to provide students with the opportunity to make choices, to learn responsibility and its rewards, and to pursue their interests.

The particular needs of the students and the requirements of open space design, dictated certain directions in curriculum and teaching strategy:

- to develop competency and readiness for more formal and abstract learning levels, the children needed many concrete and manipulative experiences.

* to accommodate the great diversity of developmental levels, both small group and individual instruction was required.
* to function in the open space setting, a decentralized management system was necessary to permit teacher-made curriculum and allow each teacher latitude in allocating instructional time.

Approaches to Strategies

Teachers developed curriculum in a number of settings: at individual meetings with teacher-trainers, at cluster conferences, with other teachers within a subject area as well as across subject lines for interdisciplinary units, and in July of 1976 when we had a Teacher Corps grant for twelve teachers to write curriculum for the concentrated period of four weeks. Writing curriculum is a complex matter, especially if the curriculum is being developed for use by teachers not involved in the design. The process is always one of the clarification and analysis of goals and strategies. What is it that a teacher wants to accomplish, and how will the teacher accomplish it? Teachers do not want for ideas. They know what they want to do, but they are not always clear about what, specifically and concretely, they want children to learn or what they expect their activities and ideas to teach. This can become clearer to the teacher in working with a teacher-trainer as they discuss the ideas so that they become crystalized for both. This analytic dialogue enables the teacher to think through his ideas so that he begins to see the difference between what he says he wants to do and what he is actually doing. For example, suppose a teacher wants to teach the causes of The Revolutionary War. It is possible, after assigning textual readings, to determine the extent of recall, but an activity is necessary to determine the degree of understanding. As a result of discussion in curriculum development meetings, the teacher concludes that, in order to determine understanding, students should be asked to decide whether or not the colonies should have revolted and support their conclusions with facts from their readings. The strategy for implementing this goal in assessing critical thinking was to use three different textual sources, including one representing the British point of view, as the basis for the students' evaluation. Graphic impact was to come from having the students chart their answers for comparison and contrast.

Thus, a strategy for meeting the learning needs of students emerges through curriculum development discussion and interaction among teachers and teacher-trainers. Other strategies have also proven effective:

- using visual and oral modes to create learning through pleasurable activities; comic books detailing historical events, scrapbooks on metals, puppet shows of original fables, small scale models of a favorite room or the Borough of Manhattan;

* teacher-made games: for grammatical learnings;
Building: a weathervane to chart wind direction;
Writing: using interviewing techniques for writing biographies of staff members;
Project choices: permitting students a range of options within a unit to yield diverse and individualized project activities--for a unit on the body, a choice of constructing a person of the future, experimenting with heart beat and pulse rate, making a game based on a body system;

* Decision Making: Color-coding required and optional assignments, e.g., students in a science class might opt to create an illustrated science dictionary unique in that the words are those which the particular student found important or fascinating.

In all cases, the form of the activity is crucial to its success, particularly, where independent study is involved. Careful step-by-step procedures have been set up so that clarity of task is readily seen. The importance of structure to curriculum development cannot be overemphasized.

1) Students know what is expected and what to expect
2) A sense of organization and stability characterizes the work in progress

3) The activity is transferable to other teachers because its nature is precise and explicit

In curriculum discussions, it is recommended that teachers run through the steps of a project themselves so that the form which results has been tested for precision and accuracy. Furthermore, in constructing units, teachers customarily include a "rationale" which will be helpful to other teachers making use of the material.* The curriculum can be viewed as a script that does not take life until its parts are cast with teacher and students. Just as a director of a dramatic production needs to know how the parts create a unified concept, so the teacher needs to know how the activities and strategies will achieve the goals. To produce a curriculum teachers require time to consider the unit and generally devote about a month of in-service activity to planning it through.

Certain observations have proven helpful:

- Nothing works all the time, but invention stimulates.
- Diversity of strategy and activity are not ends in themselves and must be balanced with an eye to substance and student needs.
- Teacher goals and student goals differ.

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*For this and other curriculum details on assessment, objectivies, activities, see the excerpts from Carol Soloff's Sense-a-tivity Curriculum at the conclusion of this paper.

- Assessment instruments, such as pre-tests can clarify skills needed, accomplishments, and purpose of activities for both teacher and students.
- When students see the relationships between pre-assessment results, goals and activities, they will be more responsive to the experiences provided by the teacher.

The essence of curriculum adapted to the learning style and developmental level of each student is its implicit respect for each student. The child is viewed as a participant in an ongoing learning process, engaged in a cumulative experience with knowledge, modifying, adapting and refining his perception of the environment as stimuli are assimilated and growth occurs.

The development of curriculum that is meaningful, lucid, and dynamic is a difficult challenge. Teachers need support in analyzing the complexities of the learning process, examining their assumptions about children, learning and in perceiving systematic patterns or structures to facilitate learning. In short, the process in which teachers engage in teaching children should be the same process in which curriculum specialists engage in working with teachers to develop curriculum: to question, to concretize; to provide appropriate activities; to respond to the variety of styles; to allow for diversity; to analyze into discrete elements; to synthesize. When this process yields a viable curriculum and learning occurs, then the student has been honestly served. The process of curriculum development is that stage in the way of a teacher which makes visible the art as a craft.*

Supplement: Sense-a-tivity Curriculum Excerpts (Developed by Carol Soloff for Grade 7)

I A Note To The Teacher

First, I recommend that this curriculum be used as a mandatory introductory unit to all topics concerning the living sciences. The senses are our primary tool for perceiving and understanding the world we live in. Among the more crucial functions that the study of science can provide for students are to have them first become more aware of their senses and begin to use those senses more acutely. A child's world seems to open up and seems to have new dimensions added on to it once he beging to use his senses more consciously and keenly. Students begin to notice things they never realized existed before like hairs on a leaf, or the eyes on a bug, the sound of a door opening or the smell or something cooking.

The second assumption is that once this awareness has been sharpened, children will begin to use it in their daily lives by making more precise observations about things previously taken for granted. They will begin to see the value of making observations more accurately and more objectively. The accuracy and objectivity of observations is achieved through the use of measurement, using precise terms as opposed to vague terms, testing out their questions and assumptions and recording the results. The ability to translate observations into written data is a thinking skill necessary in science, in all subjects and in life. This ability not only provides children with a means of connunicating their observations to others, but it also provides them with a basis for prediction. Given a set of objective observations, can the child predict what might happen in similar circumstances?

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*The author thanks Michelle Hamburg, Michael LaBoda, Kathleen Olivieri, Florence Sabrin, Jerold Waldman and Eric Wughalter whose work with students provided many of the examples in this article.

The third assumption is, when you use a problem solving approach with students, you develop their thinking skills. This curriculum is designed to start such a process by setting an atmosphere whereby students begin to ask questions, to state those questions as problems, to start to look for strategies to solve those problems, and to test out those strategies. This will not occur unless the teacher provides students with a framework to deal with any problem....

Therefore, the content of this curriculum, while important, gives the teacher a vehicle to obtain insight into the student's thinking process, to know where the student is at in this process and where he or she needs to develop. The teacher therefore, needs to focus on not whether the student gives the right or wrong answer, but how he/or she arrives at that answer. Can he/she support his/her answer? Can he/she defend it logically with facts? Does he/she go about solving the problem in an organized and scientific way? Why? Why not? The role of the teacher is thereby expanded from disseminator of information to facilitator of process. If we provide children with this kind of framework, then they can go about learning any curriculum.

II. Teacher Objectives

1. To have the students begin to accumulate a body of information about the senses.
2. To have the students develop and refine their awareness of the senses
3. To help students develop a scientific approach to problems and an inquiring mind.
4. To help students develop their thinking sills
    a. logical thought processes
    b. retention and recall
    c. transference
    d. integration
    e. generalization
    f. synthesis
    g. application
    h. categorization
    i. interpretation

III. Students Will Be Able To

1. state the names of the 5 senses
2. match a part of the body to each sense
3. take a class survey, pertaining to information obtained through one or more of the senses.
4. define words which are part of a specialized vocabulary.
5. set up simple experiments and test the validity on their own levels using the scientific method.
6. discuss their experiences with other students in large or small groups.
7. independently use reference materials in order to answer their questions as they come up.
8. write a report on a problem dealing with a sense.

IV. Some suggested methods for administering the Pre-Assessment Test:

Since the pre-assessment test is a practical one, there are several ways to administer it. The following is a suggested method that can be adopted or revised to meet the teachers' and students' needs.

Administering the Pre-Assessment

1. It is recommended that the teacher work with a small group of no more than 5 students at one time.
2. The teacher should schedule the class for one of the science rooms so that there is a minimum of noise interruption.

3. While the teacher is administering the test to the group the rest of the class can be working independently on reading and research assignments or prepared worksheets.
4. The teacher should have all materials necessary to the test set up beforehand.
5. Teachers can read or ask questions orally.
6. Each student should record his or her own answers and when necessary be aided by the teacher.
7. The teacher should record (or tape) notes while the test is being completed.

V. PRE-ASSESSMENT

Name____________________

1. How many senses are there?

Answer____________________

2. What are the names of the senses?

Answer____________________

3. What are the parts of the body you use for the senses?

Answer____________________

4. Look at the three objects, e.g. a plant, a person, a desk. Fill in the chart

QUESTION	OBJECT #1	OBJECT #2	OBJECT #3
Can you see it?			
What does it look like?			

QUESTION	OBJECT #1	OBJECT #2	OBJECT #3
Can you feel it?			
What does it feel like?			
Can you taste it?			
What does it taste like?			
Does it have a smell?			
What does it smell like?			
Does it make a sound?			
What does it sound like?			

The Sense-a-tivity Curriculum

5. The blindfold test.
    - a. Have the teacher blindfold you.
    - b. Have the teacher put 5 foods in front of you.
    - c. Smell each food.
    - d. Fill in the chart.

COULD YOU NAME THE SMELL?

Food #1	YES	NO
Food #2	YES	NO
Food #3	YES	NO
Food #4	YES	NO
Food #5	YES	NO

6. Now have the teacher put 5 different foods in front of you.
    a. Have the teacher blindfold you.
    b. Taste the food.
    c. Fill in the chart.

COULD YOU NAME THE TASTE?

Food #1	YES	NO
Food #2	YES	NO
Food #3	YES	NO
Food #4	YES	NO
Food #5	YES	NO

7. How would you find out whether or not your sense of taste is different when you use your sense of smell along with it?

VI. What should you focus on during and after the test?

1. The teacher should stress to students that this is not a test in the traditional sense. It will not be marked as a test. Students should be made to understand that it will serve as an aid to both the student and teacher for the course of study to follow.

2. Since there is much anxiety associated with reading and writing the teacher should record and read for students as much as possible. The test is designed not to test reading comprehension, but to see what the student knows once he or she understand the question.
3. Since the pre-assessment is designed to see how sharp a student's senses are, students should be encouraged to express themselves as much as possible. The teacher should listen for and record such expressions as 'the onion smells yukky'. This type of expression should tell the teacher that the student perhaps identified the small but does not know a more appropriate word to use.
4. Since the pre-assessment is designed to tell you how much information or misinformation the student has about the senses the teacher should focus on the students ability to name the senses and the parts of the body associated with each of the senses.
5. Since the pre-assessment test is designed to see how a student approaches solving a problem (question #7) the teacher should look for:
   a. Does the student see it as a question or problem to be solved?
   b. Does he or she answer it as a question requiring a right or wrong answer?
   c. Does the student start to set up a logical way for solving the problem? For example, does the student say, " I would try doing this."

INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Steven Wagner
Myrna Cooper

GOAL

If it is the goal of in-service education to promote professional growth of teachers and create a mechanism for constructive change in education, then it is the function of incentives in in-service for teachers to foster a positive climate within which in-service education will occur. The first task is to bring about the basic participation of teachers in in-service education. The more substantial task is to have comprehensive participation on a high level of effectivenss. Only a fool would seek to bring professionals into such an arena without considering those motivating factors that would make them willing, even eager to become involved.

OBSTACLES

Like the weather everyone talks about in-service education, but few do anything about making it attractive. This is partially the case because money is involved. Whenever there is discussion about education, there is a chorus of assent about what is needed to make our schools meaningful. Everyone wants the best that words can describe, few, however, want the best that money can buy. Money is the great leveller. It makes all well-wishers leave for a previous engagement.

Money is not the only problem although it is the one most likely to lead to violence. A more intellectually interesting problem concerns the professional status and/or image of teachers. Because education is largely a public function, paid for out of tax revenues and supervised by various levels of government, and because education is the most visible governmental function (with the possible exception of trash collection), and, because education at least on the primary and secondary level, has been experienced by every citizen, there is a tendency for the public to regard the teacher's professional activity in a proprietary fashion and to consider itself qualfied by first-hand knowledge and experience to tell teachers what they should do, what they are worth, and what bona fide professional activities consist. This syndrome is commonly called "Every man his own pedagogue" and bears the same relationship to education as the patient's experience of gall bladder surgery bears to making "Every man his own surgeon."

PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS

Teaching is the only profession in which the public believes that the less it costs the better it will be. That same public commonly expects a doctor or lawyer to control his own fees insofar as the market will bear them and regards "expensive practitioners" to be better than those who charge less. In fact, there is a segment of upper middle class society which is willing to pay egregious tuitions to send its youngsters to private lower schools, partly, at least, based on the notion that cost is related to quality.

MEDICAL ANALOGY

Once accepted as a professional, a practitioner is readily expected to function in both visible and non-visible ways. A doctor is visible to the public during office hours or while he is operating, but we do not regard him as a malingerer or undedicated or unproductive because his visible activities take up only a small part of his day. We assume that his non-visible activities are professionally significant and will contribute to the ultimate service delivery that the public receives. In fact, we regard a doctor more highly if we are told that a substantial portion of his time is spent in keeping up with the medical literature, writing up case reports and records, attending professional conferences, lecturing, training other doctors or writing papers, engaging in postgraduate study, or doing research, for we assume that such a person is valuable to his profession and better qualified as a result of these activities.

OTHER ISSUES

Thus, when teachers battle to establish a rationale for in-service education, they are faced with a range of criticism (pecuniary, anti-intellectual or snide, as the case may be) which make it obvious to any reasonable observer that there are those who regard it as in the public interest not to accept teachers as professionals. When an effort is made to extend the in-service rationale to include concrete incentives to encourage participation, as well as related proposals to involve teachers in the etiology of in-service programs, the forces of conservatism in the public domain rush to the barricades to defend against further erosion of the visible, allegedly measurable components of a teacher's activity. In addition to those issues raised above, they argue:

1) Teachers aren't interested in proressional improvement
2) In-service education is a costly frill
3) Incentives should be intrinsic (meaning in this instance, free of dollar cost) or unnecessary because a professional shouldn't have to be motivated to grow and improve
4) In-service education isn't clearly related to children's learning
5) In-service education is rarely systematic in its approach to universal problems
6) Basic skills aren't that hard to teach anyway
7) Dollars should go to children, not teachers

RESPONSES

Teachers and their organizations agree with many of these points but in a different context. For example, teacher organizations and their members have long argued the following relevant positions:

1) It is necessary to develop a systematic body of knowledge to demonstrate among other things, that there is a relationship between teacher preparation and continuing training and the delivery of educational services to children
2) In-service education has tended to be diffuse and unsystematic, partly because its programs tend to be developed by those furthest from the site and the need
3) Dollars for in-service training and incentives should not be subtracted from a school district's budget for direct service delivery but should represent an add-on commitment by the state and federal government.

Teachers, of course, have demonstrated their interest in professional growth, independently, for a long time. This has been evidenced by their on-going involvement in educational conferences, professional organizations, subject discipline organization, curriculum committees, reading, writing, development of original materials and advanced study. Most of these things took place, even in the absence of special incentives, because the profession is substantially made up of individuals with concern for their task, interest in their profession and pride in their work.

Moreover, the notion that in-service education is a frill or that its incentives should only be intrinsic begs the question. If teaching is a profession, then concrete incentives are organic. A doctor functions within a range of economic incentives which are the envy of all mankind. In addition to intrinsic incentives such as service and the preservation of life, a doctor can anticipate substantial pecuniary rewards for his efforts to be current, informed, and professionally versatile. Teachers have no such benefit. They continue to be among the most poorly compensated of the professionals and, in addition, have yet to achieve a measure of control over preparation and entry into the profession comparable to medicine or law. Nor can one truly regard in-service education as a frill any more than one would regard a tax lawyer's participation in a seminar on the new federal tax statutes as a frill. There *is* a knowledge explosion, and in-service training is a means to make that knowledge available to teachers for the benefit of those they teach.

As for the idea that basic skills aren't that hard to teach, anyway. The teaching professional will accept this notion simultaneous with the acceptance of the following:

1) The appendix isn't that hard to remove anyway, let Mom do it.
2) Legal briefs, if written in plain English, could be handled by your grocer.
3) Barbers should have been permitted to continue the practice of dentistry.

4. Decathlon champions don't practice for years to perfect their skills.

and the like. For what we are dealing with is a simple anti-intellectual notion that because the visible discrete particle of knowledge which is the final product (e.g., the sum of 2 + 2) seems so simple to those who have learned it, the highly complex invisible substructure of knowledge, analysis, theoretical foundation which made that "simple" learning step possible doesn't exist. We seek a professional to perform even the least intricate of functions within his disciplines, because we rely on the professional to

a) relate that function to the entire complex of functions which may affect it and

b) anticipate negative as well as positive implications of the process involved.

Thus we expect the doctor to guard against and compensate for the danger of blood poisoning, the lawyer, countersuits, and the teacher, learning disabilities or character disorders or the confusion of apples and oranges.

Let us turn now to a review of possible incentives which will motivate teachers to pursue in-service educational activities. We recognize that many or most of these are in use in one district or another. The purpose in reviewing then is to provide a basis for developing incentive programs diverse enough to reach the broadest possible professional audience.

NATURAL, INTRINSIC OR PERSONAL INCENTIVES

Such incentives, as previously suggested, stem, usually, from a teacher's involvement in his profession. Many are also extrinsic and will be listed later in that connection.

1) Improved job satisfaction.
2) Improved job performance.
3) Survival in the face of a difficult job.
4) Makes the job "easier" (knowledge is power).
5) Vertical career mobility (promotion).
6) Horizontal career mobility (qualification for parallel position such as trainer, subject coordinator, learning disabilities specialist, new license, e.g., bilingual or teacher of the emotionally handicapped).
7) Job mobility - geographic, (qualification to work elsewhere/transferability of credits to another institution).
8) Personal growth and development (what makes a teacher whole?).
9) Sabbaticals.
10) Social incentives:
    a) opportunity for interaction with other professionals
    b) opportunity to blend work and recreation
    c) status gained by involvement in another setting with those sharing professional concerns

11) Being the first with something new (pride in innovation).

12) Sharing: The receiver becomes the giver, i.e., the trainee imparts knowledge gained by giving workshops, etc.

13) Team incentive - learning to work productively with other levels of support and classroom personnel.

CONCRETE, EXTRINSIC (MONEY STATUS) INCENTIVES

These are essential components of any effort to create a positive climate for in-service training. The approaches noted here are those which are truly positive in intent, not those notions which are disguised as incentives but are really attempts to get teachers to do more for less.

1) Time off with pay during school year to attend institutes, conferences.
2) Time off with pay (released time) during school day to attend courses, workshops.
3) Modular programming to permit on-site in-service training.
4) Increment credit.
5) Course or college credit for consortial projects.
6) Degree credit.
7) Double credit: salary and course/degree.
8) Voucher credit where increment or course is no longer needed (transferability to a) family worker, b) fellow unionist.

9) Additional paid workdays for training purposes (teacher conference days).

10) Extra summer pay for projects, conferences (scale or stipend).

11) Extra school year pay (as for #10).

12) Vertical career ladder.

13) Horizontal mobility.

14) Job/study mobility (including transferability of credits gained or due from a cooperating institution to another degree-granting institution).

15) Sabbatical a) year b) term c) summer d) mini for study, travel, personal goals.

16) College credit for training intern or student teacher.

17) Mini-grants (or slush fund) for in-service project (materials/resource incentive).

18) Sharing (see intrinsic): credit should be given for formal "sharing" activities.

19) Convenience: a) where is the training scheduled? is it convenient? b) where will it be held? is it accessible?

The incentives indicated are not exclusive of each other nor should they be considered as so. For example, The Angelo Patri teachers who attended the Lake Como Workshop benefitted from the following. incentives listed: Intrinsic #'s 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13; Extrinsic #'s 4, 6, 7, 10, 19.

COUNTER-INCENTIVES

It is necessary to complete the perspective on issues and devices in in-service education incentives to consider a group of notions or practices, worthy of negation, which function as counter-incentives to the wholesome and willing involvement of teachers in in-service education:

1) Mandated in-service training (you can lead a teacher to class, but you can't make him listen); this approach attempts to legislate competence, assays a global approach to problems that should be dealt with specifically and is essentially totalitarian in that it removes from the profession the right to decide what is needed, where it is needed and in what form it is needed.
2) Accountability Fad: The measurement of what children know as a determinant of what teachers need to know.
3) In-service money diverted from staff or materials allotment (see above).
4) Unrealistic expectations. (The district paid for your course - why haven't the reading scores improved?).
5) Physical arrangements - a) after-school - the teacher may be exhausted b) too far - the teacher can't readily reach the site.
6) Locked in to School of Education - courses in allied fields are not recognized or accepted for incentives.

7) District wants a change which teachers don't want (In this instance, an attractive array of incentives may make the imposition palatable).

8) In-service course instructors may be administrators not respected by the staff.

9) In-service courses given for political or bandwagon motives.

10) Punitive results for not participating in in-service.

11) Not rewarding sharing (see incentive intrinsic #12, extrinsic #18).

12) Fear of change on the part of the teacher.

13) Treatment of professionals - condescending, pupil-like.

14) Absence of professional involvement in the development of the programs for in-service.

15) Suspicion of the motive
    a) cf. #9.
    b) university eagerness to engage in on-site in-service and collaborate with teachers motivated by a desire for funding and expansion of student body base (where have they been all these years?).

SUMMARY

Incentives for in-service education are the most graceful way to promote an activity which will create a positive climate for educational change, teacher growth, good staff morale and improved service delivery to students. Vigilance is needed by professionals and their representatives to assure that false notions of economy, anti-intellectual shibboleths and anti-professional biases do not undermine teachers' rightful expectation of reasonable rewards for reasonable involvement in professional growth activities. Incentives are varied in function and diverse in nature and a combination of incentives is most likely to yield a positive response. Counter-incentives are worse than no incentives at all. Continued growth of its practitioners is a bone fide measure of a profession.

THE SUPERVISOR AS SCHOOL INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

Sol Press

Role Definition

It is the basic thesis of this paper that the lower and middle school supervisor has a central and strategic function in the in-service training of teachers. In exploring this role, primary emphasis is placed on the principal as head supervisor, particularly since many smaller schools have no other supervisory personnel. However, assistants to principal, insofar as their range of responsibility permits, are in a position to function in the same way as the head of school.

In examining what a supervisor can accomplish in in-service areas, it is helpful to bear in mind that being the instructional leader is one part of a supervisor's job. Administrative responsibilities, rating obligations, community relations functions, disciplinary tasks, etc., may be important to the school in another sense, but these aspects of the job should not be confused with or intrude into the instructional dimension. While administrators throughout the years have been concerned about the proper education of teachers, there is the danger that today's multiple administrative problems may detract from the fundamental responsibility - teaching for learning.

How is this responsibility to be defined? Most administrators are in agreement that the modern theory of leadership is oriented toward the service function, in which the leader helps people to perform their duties more effectively by assisting the staff in innumerable ways to make it easier for them to do their job better. This service function which is the central concept in effective instructional supervision speaks to all the subsidiary components of a definition of a supervisor in the in-service realm. As principal teacher, the supervisor serves by modeling. By bringing staff members into interaction with each other or by removing bureaucratic obstacles, in scheduling or organization or the availability of the tools of instruction, he functions as facilitator. He is in a position to integrate environment, materials and the teacher to form a smooth functioning unit. By example and by design and by his capacity to stimulate others, he functions as change agent. As model, he is able to create a natural climate for invention, risk, interaction, creation. By authority, he can align the school organism so that not only direct learning experiences are executed gracefully, but also in-service opportunities are made available in the course of the working day. In short, the supervisor as instruction leader is all of these:

- Model
- Facilitator
- Charge Agent
- Organizer
- Stimulator

The realization of so ambitious a role description requires concrete activities executed with diplomacy, enthusiasm and unselfish dedication. The optimal supervisor may exist only on paper, but all of us have, somewhere in our school experience, encountered individuals whom we have recognized as exhibiting many of the qualities necessary. Probably, most supervisors could agree on a role definition. What are really differences of intelligence, temperament and sincerity account for the tremendous performance variations in flesh and blood supervisors.

Executing The Role

Briefly, a supervisor fulfills his instructional leadership role through his activities in the following areas:

1) Long-range planning for change and growth
2) Assessment and identification of common and individual needs
3) Allocation of material and human resources for effective instruction and training
4) Fostering an atmosphere of cooperation and communication with individuals and groups
5) Teaching by example

The supervisor not only encourages, but also works along with teachers. He must look beyond the problems that bother him and the faculty day by day to see what must be done to improve the quality of education being offered the students. This is, of course, a joint, participation function which involves planning and developing an ongoing, sequential staff development program for a sustained period of time. This is much more effective than a one-day meeting or a five-day series of meetings (although these have an often crucial relevance) as it becomes a regular part of the school program with people meeting, talking, and discussing ways of handling problems and programs for the school. It is important to stay within the same framework for a length of time, adopting changes with caution in order to avoid resistance and insecurity. Change can only be introduced after agreement and training and must be accompanied by the assurance understanding and acceptance. The desired climate is one which encourages people to deviate, to change, to try new approaches without fear of harsh criticism if failure occurs.

Assessment

The principal is in a unique position to lead in the development of an instructional program from the formulation of objectives to the final implementation in the classroom. His is the opportunity for global perspective, a view of the entire school experience not accessible to the teacher.

In seeking knowledge about the instructional needs of the school, the supervisor need not rely on formal assessment. What he must know is the range of experience of the staff, the characteristics, and achievement levels of the students and the quantity and quality of the resources available to the faculty. In addition, he must seek as much insight as possible into the daily classroom experience. The most direct way to do this is by immersion in the classroom through non-rating visitation, through participation in the instructional activities he encounters, through direct teaching as the occasion warrants, and through, from time to time, covering classes (perhaps to facilitate teacher intervisitation).

From all of this exposure and information, the principal can develop a long-range plan which will incorporate an understanding of pupil needs, an in-service approach realistically attuned to the staff's level of experience, and which will be achievable insofar as the material capacity of the school is concerned.

Cooperation and Dialogue

The Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, published by the Bureau of Publishers of Teachers College, Columbia University in 1930[1], and devoted to, "Current Problems of Supervisors," listed as one of the prime injunctions for supervision, is that it be cooperative. "This implies that common ends have been determined through the refinement that comes only with a meeting of the minds. Supervision works with teachers toward the solution of mutual problems. It eliminates every vestige of dictation or inspection. The teacher turns to the supervisor because the latter has proven his or her capacity to be useful." The cooperative dimension has been keynoted over and over again since then, but, it is considered necessary to repeat this supervisory axiom even today.

It is important that a relationship must be developed between the school supervisor and the teachers based upon mutual respect and trust. The extension of a helping hand by the supervisor must be offered in a way not interpreted as an opportunity for fault-finding; a request for help from a teacher must not be viewed as a sign of inadequacy, but rather should be responded to with the implicit acknowledgement that seeking solutions is professional.

The kind of open and unself-conscious exchange and sharing which characterizes teacher to teacher and teacher to supervisor relationships in well-functioning schools develops not only in contacts which are primarily classroom-based but also through a range of in-school activities in which staff members can cooperate and interact. This would include committees, school exhibits, joint projects, auditorium programs, grade level subject matter or curriculum meetings and the like.

Teaching By Example

There is no surer-footed grip on the highest plateau of staff trust and confidence than that which is achieved not by fiat or bureaucratic checklist but by the example which a supervisor sets daily in meeting challenges and opportunities comparable to those encountered by his faculty. It is the trite but true, "do as I do," and "as I say" when the two are integral. The principal teacher would do well to be a talented teacher who can demonstrate technique and attitude in the classroom, at the faculty conference, in curriculum meetings, in informal contacts, with children and their parents.

Allocation

To assure instructional success, it is the supervisor's responsibility to utilize all the resources of the staff, both school and district, to improve the quality of the programs in progress. It is unrealistic to assume that the principal has competence in the content, materials and methods in all areas of our rapidly changing curriculum. It is therefore, important that the principal use members of his own faculty, members of the district staff, or other specialists as resources to help in this on-going process of staff development. Particularly, the principal must plan effectively for the proper utilization of out-of-building specially funded support personnel, so that they will contribute fully to the overall teacher education program of the school. Their roles and responsibilities must be integrated into the framework of programs being implemented in the school so that their contribution is consonant with the goals and direction of the school's program. What is being sought is a productive, educational ecology that will remain in balance so long as supervisors and faculty work actively to nurture and improve it.

In addition, the principal must meet the opportunity to function as the link between inanimate resources and the classroom. The necessity of providing materials of instruction cannot be stressed enough. The supervisor has the responsibility of making available resources such as books, maps, globes, models, machines. Too often, teachers are discouraged because they are expected to produce without necessary tools. They prepare and there is no one to type; they type and there is no facility to duplicate. They duplicate and there are not resources to implement. If such frustrations are not solved with administrative assistance, it undermines the enthusiasm to initiate and participate.

Opportunities For In-Service

There are concrete opportunities for the major contributions which the supervisor as instructional leader can make available within the extra-classroom structures of a school.

The supervisor should give serious consideration to changing the concept of his conferences with the faculty. Many of the schools in District 10 hold conferences, each related to a problem facing a specific segment of the faculty. This concept was first begun in the District 10 office when meetings with principals were modified to meet the distinct needs facing each school. Six principals meeting around the table with the superintendent and members of his staff had more opportunity to relate their experiences and offer suggestions than would have taken place at a meeting of twenty-five principals.

A monthly faculty conference devoted, in the main, to administrative details is a luxury which no longer can be afforded. Supervisors must use alternate techniques of getting the faculty to be aware of routine administrative details (weekly written bulletins, daily notices on the bulletin board, teacher handbooks, judicious use of the loudspeaker system for a few minutes during the home room periods) so that conferences can concentrate on educational challenges and the examination of possible innovations. Conferences for developing strategies of instruction and uplifting and improving the educational product must not only be planned thoughtfully, and jointly with faculty committees (or exclusively by faculty committees) but must also be structured to suit the need at hand. Different grades can meet; different groups can meet around a common idea or theme; different groups can meet around common concerns or problems; different supervisors in the building may chair a variety of conferences. The principal should help organize a conference planning committee to adapt the meetings to meet the needs of the staff. The principal should recognize the abilities and strengths of his faculty, inviting staff members to lead panels, conduct workshops, give demonstrations and discuss the classroom procedures which they find effective. It is helpful for the supervisor to be present at the such workshops, whenever possible, participating as a colleague, serving as a catalyst for a change, giving support, supplying impetus and enthusiasm.

Consider a hypothetical situation in which, after classroom visits, the principal concludes that a number of his teachers need direction in devising a scheme to diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of their class in order to move into a more individualized approach in the teaching of mathematics. A planning committee is organized which includes some of the teachers, along with the district math coordinator and the teacher trainer to plan a series of workshops at which approaches are analyzed, demonstrated, and shaped. Remember that the conferences can be built around areas of interest other than curriculum. These include reports on educational research, reports on visits to other schools, conventions or city-wide meetings, or contributions of experts in human development to feature the relationship between that discipline and methodology. Child behavior and its impact on the learning process can be explored; demonstrations of teaching methods and techniques can take place; materials of instruction can be examined and evaluated; the school's testing program and its assessment can be reviewed. Supervisors should not overlook speakers from local agencies in order to acquaint the faculty with the community. All of these topics can be used most effectively to vitalize and stimulate conferences.

Naturally, the need for a creative curriculum and the materials which permit its communication to students provides a central and concrete opportunity for the supervisor to be the instructional leader in in-service staff training. While some spokesmen for curriculum reform advocate teacher-proof curricula and envision the development of ideal curriculum packages of uniform quality control, rejection of teacher tampering, or elimination of variations in individual teacher style, orientation or competence, it is clear that this approach reduces the teacher to the status of a low grade technician, rather than that of a professional, diagnosing shortcomings and prescribing creative and practical ideas and solutions. The principal plays a vital role in helping to innovate programs. Many new programs fail because the involved staff members do not have, or were not given, the opportunities to learn the necessary operational skills to bring the program to fruition. They were not provided with essential materials and it was not made clear to them that program failure is not an indication of teacher incompetence.

It is reasonable to assume that teachers will receive support in curriculum writing and curriculum modification. This task is notably difficult and the expectations are immoderate when the principal asks the teachers to be creative and to devote the extensive time needed to rewrite standard courses of study without helping them to do so. Curriculum development and the instructional program are inseparable. Realizing the differences in the abilities of the children, the teacher must modify the materials of instruction which are available. In this operation, the teacher becomes a "Director of the Learning Process," not merely a dispenser of information. The professional teacher is rapidly moving away from the self-contained classroom towards the development of skills in working with other members of the teaching team (paraprofessionals, the cluster teachers, the specialists) who help to carry out instructional tasks with pupils as individuals and in groups.

The principal can be a catalyst in the area of curriculum materials. He ought to be aware of the latest publications and materials of instruction and share this knowledge with the staff, in conferences and by personally sending materials to various teachers in the school.

The supervisor can facilitate accessibility in the preparation and development of materials of instruction. The school should prepare a bulletin or booklet listing what is available within the school interms of textbooks, maps, science materials, and other materials of instruction, so that the teachers will know what is in the school. It is necessary, as well, for distribution to be debureaucratized. Of what value is it to have materials of instruction stored in closets, if the teachers cannot get them quickly and easily? Concomitant to the preparation and distribution of the curriculum booklet, conferences must be devoted to teaching the faculty to use the variety of materials of instruction. It is important, too, to demonstrate how the materials can enhance and improve the subject matter by integrating the teacher's presentation with the materials used. How can a sixth grade text book in social studies be distributed to a class whose reading level is on the 4th grade? If the supervisor helps his teachers secure an effective working knowledge of the tools of teaching, courses of study, tests, textbooks, instructional materials and

and equipment, the teachers will then be able to seek to improve the tools themselves. If a teacher sees the child as an individual, his or her outlook and commitment will be humanized.

The development of a procedure within the school of highlighting available materials of instruction is also very important. The supervisor and a committee of his faculty can obtain samples of textbooks and other instructional materials. This committee, along with other volunteers, should have the opportunity to review the new textbooks and materials of instruction and evaluate their usefulness to the staff. Demonstration lessons, conferences and workshops should be devoted to the display of the new materials and a demonstration of their use. Display areas, perhaps in the teachers' lunchroom, the school library or a school resource room can be set up.

Conclusion

There are no easy solutions to the myriad problems facing education today. Many people have been searching for quick and easy ways to bring about educational change, a search for a model which can be readily adopted. There is no model -- change and progress come only after a great deal of thought, planning and work. One must remember that the ultimate purpose of staff development programs is to improve education for children. An underlying theme of all programs is that the principal and the staff must see learning and the acquisition of new competencies as a lifelong process.

TEACHER EVALUATION -
A TEACHER UNIONIST'S VIEW*

Sandra Feldman

We have enormous social pressure on the schools for change and at the same time an atmosphere of blame-placing and scapegoating. Schools in general and teachers in particular are bearing a responsibility for problems they cannot solve, problems caused largely by conditions over which they have no control. Teachers not only suffer the difficulties and strains of the classroom without adequate supports, but are accused of "insensitivity", are caught in conflicts and power fights, are constantly criticized, and are ceaselessly bombarded with "innovations" and new schemes for "accountability" in which they are told they will be judged "objectively."

"Solutions" like performance contracting or vouchers are offered. When those fall short of the mark, some school critics, on the basis of often questionably reliable research, seek to establish that schools make no difference anyway and decide to abandon the schools altogether as a place of learning.

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*Excerpted and updated from a paper presented at the ETS Programs of Continuing Education Course: Inservice Teacher Evaluation at Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, November 27, 1972.

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All this represents a terrible danger to the continued viability of public education. If we are going to counter the attitude that schools don't matter, if educators are going to save the schools, then we must use the considerable reservoir of knowledge of classroom practitioners to assemble for education a coherent body of knowledge, using ongoing meaningful research in the way that the professions such as medicine and law, do.

THE BEGINNING TEACHER

It is in this context that we come to a discussion of teacher evaluation. Even if he has had student teaching, the new teacher finds himself in a very different situation of sudden and total responsibility for a class. The very logistics involved in a classroom of 30 or 35 pupils (if he's lucky enough to have so few) are frightening: he cannot confront the business of actually teaching them until he establishes some authority and order and an atmosphere of mutual respect. If he doesn't make it in the first few weeks, he isn't likely to make it, and one of two things will happen. He can settle into a career in which each day is a terrible strain and struggle just to get through, or he can drop out. When we talk about evaluating competency, we must always remember that the classroom itself--that roomful of youngsters--is a vehicle for accountability. Thousands of new teachers drop out each year, demoralized and defeated. That is a problem for us as educators. We have no way of knowing how many of them might have made good teachers. But there is a bigger problem, the problem of those who are demoralized and defeated but do not drop out. Do they lack necessary skills? Do the school or classroom conditions account for the problem? Are there supports not provided which might help? Or is the entire situation beyond the teacher's or the school's control? Then there are the teachers--a majority--who do manage, who do learn to teach, right there, in the classroom, usually through trial and error. In those classrooms, it appears that teaching and learning is going on, and by and large, after some months or a year or two of experience, it is going on (at least to the uncertain extent that we can measure it).

Where is the administrator while all this is happening? For the most part, the supervisor or administrator is harried, beset by paper work, parental complaints, community problems, cafeteria mix-ups and disruptions, accidents and assaults. Even if he has been adequately prepared to help new teachers, he hardly has the time. He is much more the school administrator than the principal teacher. Meanwhile, the teacher is developing other relationships in the school. He is recruited to the teachers' organization and is briefed on the nature of the school, its faculty, its administration. The teacher next door offers help--some materials, lesson plans, some knowledge of the youngsters from previous experience. In the coffee shop, on the corner or in the teachers' lunchroom, he gets a variety of tips and advice. Usually, that is where he brings his teaching problems, and, usually, that is where he finds aid. A very important kind of training takes place in this informal way. One of the greatest defects of our school systems is the lack of planned time, available during the school day for teacher-sharing.

Sooner or later, before the end of the term, comes the observation. In her tidy little book, Teachers Talk, Estelle Fuchs describes it accurately:

> "The ceremony is really very simple, although considerable time is spent by prospective supervisors learning how to conduct it, and much discussion is held concerning the significance of the variations possible in its execution. Essentially, the observation is similar from school to school, with some stylistic variations...The teacher is usually aware that she will be visited, although she may or may not know the specific time. In some situations the exact time of the observation is mutually agreed upon by the teacher and her supervisor. She may or may not be given a choice of subject to teach, but she usually has enough advance notice to prepare herself and the children for the event. The principal (or his assistant) arrives, and observes. He may or may not take part in the lesson; more usually he does not...He may make a few parting comments.
>
> "Fairly soon afterward the principal conducts a conference

with the teacher...The critique and comments follow a rather consistent pattern. Some negative things and some positive things are said about the conduct of the lesson. Sometime later, these comments are presented to the teacher in the form of a letter, duplicate copies of which are sent to the appropriate files and persons.

"The ceremony also includes some instruction. The teacher is generally given a structure which her lesson should follow, with emphasis upon aim and motivation. She is frequently told not to repeat the children's answers or to call on a child before asking a question. She is encouraged not to use a loud tone of voice or attempt to cover too many things in one lesson. There are, generally, comments made about the physical appearance of the room, with emphasis placed upon displaying the work of children. These instructions help remove the mystery surrounding expectation of her behavior and make it possible to face future observations with less trepidation.

"During the course of the observation and subsequent conferences, the teacher has passed through an emotional crisis characterized by severe fear and nervousness, or a state of numbness. Many if not all teachers regard the observation as an ordeal through which they have to go. Having successfully passed through it, the teacher receives affirmation that she is 'on the right track,' that she is

> indeed a teacher recognized as such by her superiors. The observation is thus a ritual through which the teacher and the principal go. The ritual affirms the teacher's incorporation into the staff, and it also affirms her subordinate position in the staff hierarchy, for it reinforces the principal's right of inspection."[1]

Here is a pungent variation on the foregoing:

> "When I went downstairs for lunch the principal came over to me and he took up most of my lunch hour telling me about the observation. He criticized me on two things. Number one, the way that I teach the words--which is by teaching both groups' words to the whole class. This is what I've been told to do in the reading course (I've been taking) and this was what the assistant principal told me to do and this is what I myself have found very effective. He criticized this, and the other thing he criticized is one of the drill games which I use and which I have also learned from this course. In short, the only things that he criticized me for were things that the assistant principal had told me to do and things which I had gotten from the reading course."[2]

After the observation and the formal letter which purports to record the experience and the communication between supervisors and teacher "for the record," at the end of the term, comes a rating form, usually with a numerical rating for each item in a checklist. Most important of all is the evaluation, S for satisfactory, U for unsatisfactory and a recommendation either for continuance of employment or discontinuance.

If the teacher received a U _and_ a recommendation for discontinuance, the situation is grave. Of course, the teacher can accept a U rating and even separation from service and will do that if convinced that the supervisor is correct and the outcome is deserved.

Very few teachers feel that way. Most of them will go right to their teachers' organization for advice and aid. The representative _could_ decide, on a review of the situation, that the evidence of incompetency is overwhelming, that the supervisor has followed all procedures properly, that the teacher has been given all the help possible, to no avail--and will advise the teacher to look elsewhere for a career. There actually are occasions when such advice is given.

They are few and far between. The evidence of incompetence is rarely, if ever, overwhelming and the teacher _never_ has received enough help on the job.

THE TENURED TEACHER

Tenure is not a life-time guarantee of a job. All it means is that if a teacher has worked satisfactorily for a given period, there is a point at which it is harder to fire him than it was during the previous period. That is, he now has available to him a real due process procedure--in almost all cases, required by state law, and in some, by contract.

The procedure, briefly, (and it is probably similar in most states which have tenure laws) requires notice of charges in advance, gives the accused teacher right to counsel, the right to a copy of exact charges and "specifications", the right to cross-examine opposing witnesses and to bring witnesses in his own behalf, and after a series of hearings through the hierarchy of the school system, the right to a hearing before an impartial trial examiner picked from a list approved by his union as well as by the Board and, finally, recourse to the courts or the Commissioner of Education.

What it means, practically, is that in order for a tenured teacher to be fired for incompetence, his supervisors have to have very good evidence of his incompetence. (There are, of course, other possible causes for dismissing teachers which are not the subject of our discussion, but they, too, should, and do, require substantial evidence.)

Very few tenured teachers are fired for incompetence. First, because within the limits of what we understand teaching competency to be, most teachers who survive the classroom for three years or more are actually competent; and, second, because in order for a supervisor to prove incompetence he must:

a) Be able to identify incompetence;

b) Spend a good deal of time in a teacher's classroom to document it;

c) Know what to do in terms of aid and training when a teacher, in his opinion, exhibits incompetence;

d) Document his own efforts to help the teacher;

e) Show that his efforts at training and helping the teacher were valid, on the one hand, and to no avail on the other.

Since the evaluation of tenured teachers takes exactly the same form, for the most part, as the kind of evaluation already described for probationary teachers, namely, observation and rating scales, this is very hard to do.

APPROACHES TO EVALUATION

Teachers feel that existing methods of evaluating are subjective, punitively oriented, based on the opinion of supervisors who do not know more about teaching than they do, easily used in a discriminatory way against the outspoken, the non-conformers, the union activists, the "creative", and, last but not least, are unfair because pre-service teacher education is inadequate and in-service teacher education insufficient.

Furthermore, there is confusion about the role of teacher evaluation in the schools. Is it to get rid of incompetents? Teachers want to do that as much as anyone, for they bear the brunt more than anyone when there are incompetent teachers in the school or in the system. Is it to judge performance only, or to improve teaching and education generally?

We must decide on our goal. Is it to get rid of a high percentage of teachers each year on the assumption that a "shape up or ship out" atmosphere in the schools will make things better? If so, then all that needs to be done is to figure out some procedures which make it easier to get rid of people--require less evidence of incompetence, for example.

Or is our goal to improve instruction? If it is, then the job is a little more complicated. Each of the things we must do is dependent on the other things which must be done.

First, pre-service teacher preparation needs vast improvement. It must be made more relevant to the needs of the classroom. It must be more related to the ability of the teacher to perform. It must enable its graduates to demonstrate their competence with confidence.

Teacher education institutions can do a great deal. They should be involved in research and development as they evolve performance-based, field-centered programs. They can be developing models of teacher performance based on available knowledge, utilizing some of the very limited research and the opinions of experienced classroom educators, and they can be planning comprehensive research to test those models so that the changes they make are based on real knowledge, not on guesses and not on what looks good in a catalogue or brochure.

Moreover, changes in teacher selection procedures should also be made based on knowledge, not ignorance. We want to know whether a teacher candidate will be a good teacher. The fact that he has completed a college program is helpful. An examination will tell us whether the candidate can read and write and knows his subject matter.

What we should be following up on, however, is to see whether groups of teachers who have been licensed or certified in particular ways are performing satisfactorily, whether a particular preparation program or inservice program or selection procedure is related to that performance in any way. School systems themselves should be doing this, should have the capacity and resources for it, and classroom teachers, through their organizations, should be involved in the planning and implementation of such processes.

We have had a great deal of controversy over examinations for licensing in New York City and the courts have stepped in. Judge Mansfield, when enjoining the supervisors' examination did not say, as most people think, that the exams were discriminatory. He said that in the absence of evidence of their predictive validity, and given the relatively small numbers of Blacks and Puerto Ricans who pass them, their continuance could not be justified in the face of charges of possible discrimination. However, the ending of these exams has led to widespread favoritism and discrimination in the hiring of supervisors throughout New York City. No one will ever know for sure whether the change has affected school performance positively or negatively because no effort is being made to find out.

The problem of just and meaningful selection procedures is not solely a large city problem. A look around the country will demonstrate that in the absence of objective standards, discrimination, however subtle, takes place to a degree it never did under the merit system in New York City where minority group after minority group made it into the school system by virtue of an objective examination system.

Nevertheless, selection procedures, certification and licensing procedures should not be changed because there is great political pressure for change. In fact, the highly political situation schools operate under should make us very careful. We should have a selection procedure which is rigorous and objective. Those who argue for a lowering of standards or the discontinuance of examinations altogether so that more minority group candidates can be certified, are making what is actually a racist argument based on the assumption that Blacks and Puerto Ricans or other minorities are less intelligent or able. They seek a subjective system which is of greatest danger to those very groups on whose behalf they demand it. It has always been in the interest of minorities to have selection based on objective standards and merit. What we need is to make those standards meaningful by basing them on carefully researched and proven knowledge.

Standards for evaluation have always existed. We have had long checklists for a long time. Historically, those standards have been criticized for being too general or for being too specific. The real problem is that they have not been rooted in a knowledge base backed up by careful research and thus have had nothing to do with instructional improvement.

Teachers usually have no idea what the standards are. Actually they should not only know what they are, but should be involved in establishing them. They should have the knowledge, skills, tools, conditions by which to meet them. They should have confidence in both the standards and the evaluatory system. They should be convinced that there is a knowledge base and that it is a sound one.

They should be evaluated for what they know and for those parts of the educational totality over which they have control. They should be evaluated not on the basis of achievement test scores of pupils--which involve many other factors besides teacher input--but on the basis of their own behavior in the context of knowledge about which teacher behaviors or skills or competencies affect learning. As yet, we do not have comprehensive and systematic evidence that any one teaching methodology is superior to any other. We have no conclusive evidence that teachers with x or y particular skill or competency will elicit x or y learning response.

Attempts to apply the management skills developed by business and industry have gotten the schools into trouble before.

In the early 1900's, the whole notion of "efficiency" was very popular in education. Time and motion studies were being suggested for the schools and they have a frighteningly familiar ring. In Raymond Callahan's Education and the Cult of Efficiency, there is a chapter called, "American Educators Apply the Great Panacea." It deals with efforts to specifically define the processes and products of education, and quotes from a very influential pamphlet by Franklin Bobbitt of the University of Chicago:

> "....it is possible to set up definite standards for the various educational products. (He means students. S.F.) The ability to add at a speed of 65 combinations per minute, with an accuracy of 94 percent is as definite a specification as can be set up for any aspect of the work of the steel plant...(Most teachers) if asked whether his eighth grade pupils could add at the rate of 65 combinations per minute with an accuracy of 94 percent, could not answer the question....He needs a measuring scale...(and) having these definite tasks laid upon her (sic) she can know at all times whether she is accomplishing the things expected of her or not. She can herself know immediately whether she is a good teacher, a medium teacher, or a poor teacher...(and the supervisor would then have) incontestable evidence of inefficiency against the weak teacher...[3]

It was around the same time, and as a result of the same pressures and influences, that checklists or rating scales were developed to eliminate "arbitrary personal opinions" from ratings--which then contained such items as "integrity and sincerity," "enthusiasm and optimism," "sense of justice." These "skills" were to be rated "very poor," "poor," "medium," "good," or "excellent."

What happened then set the basis for many of the inadequacies and absurdities we are facing now, for as Callahan correctly points out, leading educators were making:

> "...impressive scientific-appearing presentations while ignoring more profound considerations....Perhaps an awareness of the difficulty of the task and of the skill and training necessary for the research work would have made the situation more difficult for them in 1913, but it would have contributed to the study of education in the long run...(but) Few educators saw the need, and neither the research skill nor the money was available."[4]

We must not repeat this sad history. Plans for changing and strengthening teacher evaluation must be accompanied by meaningful research. We do not have to wait, to do nothing until research is completed. We can and should develop teaching models based on the limited available research and on the opinions of experienced classroom teachers, and we can move ahead with those as long as a research design is built in and carried on simultaneously with the development. Such efforts must include the establishment of substantive programs such as teacher internships, so that beginning teachers, instead of learning by trial and error on the job, are given only half a classload in the first year and three-quarters in the second, with the rest of the time spent working with experienced teachers and in relevant in-service training. Teacher evaluation must not be done in a vacuum. We should be attempting to evaluate the total school, taking into account the school environment, the administration, the curriculum, etc., as well as teaching performance, and we should be comparing schools operating under similar conditions in an effort to learn why some appear to be, or are, more effective than others. This should be done not to identify incompetence but to find out what works in education so it can be applied and expanded.

Experienced classroom teachers must be involved fully in the development of any program for evaluation of professionals, or of schools, or for changing teacher training programs, first, because they have a great deal to offer, and second, because their very involvement will lead to improvement of their own teaching.

CONCLUSION

Schools exist in a social and political reality which must be considered and understood by those involved in educational change. Changes in teacher evaluation which take place in an "off with their heads" atmosphere and in the context of school budget-cutting and job shortages will be viewed with suspicion by teachers and their organizations. We have learned from history, even if others have not.

There are no "procedural" solutions to improving teaching. For the most part, adequate procedures for weeding out incompetents exist; they are hard for administrators to use primarily because no one really knows what incompetence is, except in extreme cases, and the processes for evaluation now used rely primarily on subjective opinion rather than on proven knowledge.

As teacher unionists, we are vitally interested in better education. Because we are, we will insist that the much-needed, time-consuming, massive research be done to find out what we need to know about teacher behavior and its effects on learning.

We will press for the necessary funds for that research and we will demand that teachers have a meaningful voice in its direction. We will continue to support the establishment of an on-the-job internship for teachers, whatever their preservice training has been. We will continue to defend teachers subjected to the vagaries and uncertainties of current evaluation procedures. We will continue to support non-disciminatory high standards for entry into the teaching profession. We will cooperate with those institutions which are seeking educational solutions in a meaningful and knowledgeable way.

We are interested in change, but we have seen too much of change for change's sake. We want educators to stop reinventing the wheel. We will do our best to see to it that, for once, in education, change is based on substantive and valid knowledge instead of on public relations and guess work.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Estelle Fuchs, Teachers Talk (Anchor Books, Doubleday, New York, 1969) pp. 160-162.

[2] *Ibid*, pp. 148-149.

[3] Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, (University of Chicago Press, 1962) pp. 81-82.

[4] *Ibid*, pp. 106-107.

THE URBAN MISSION OF THE UNIVERSITY

Sheldon Marcus
Jay Sexter

In the previous articles, individuals of varying backgrounds and professional affiliations described how a collaborative education venture involving teachers, administrators and university and community personnel focusing on one school in Community School District 10, Bronx, New York -- the Angelo Patri School (I.S. 137), has attempted to improve the education of the pupils attending that school and to provide hope for the residents of the area. The framework and procedures developed by the aforementioned participants over a period of years, will perhaps prove helpful to other educators and parent groups who are entering upon a similar endeavor.

The involvement of Fordham University's School of Education in this project typifies its on-going commitment to serving urban schools. The purpose of this paper is to answer the following questions: How did Fordham's urban thrust come about? What has been the impact of this urban educational involvement on the university and the school districts with which it has become involved? How can other universities become more urban oriented?

Fordham's long-term commitment to working with urban public schools gained its major impetus in 1967 when the University employed Dr. Harry N. Rivlin, formerly Dean of

Teacher Education at The City University of New York, as the Dean of the School of Education. Dean Rivlin was given a mandate to recruit faculty and attract students who would come to grips with the myriad problems confronting urban schools. So began the long, arduous process of involvement with metropolitan area schools. In the years that followed, the University showed its support for the greater urban role of the School of Education in the following ways:

- Employed over 30 additional full time faculty.
- In February of 1969, the New Lincoln Center Campus was completed, part of which housed the School of Education.
- Encouraged the expanding faculty to make contacts and develop relationships with the many ethnic and racial groups that comprise the school population of New York City.

Although the faculty knew that educational problems would be solved neither easily nor quickly, there was a prevailing belief that degree programs and course offerings of the School of Education should reflect its location in urban America. Fordham University's School of Education was determined that its programs would leave no doubt as to its urban thrust and commitment, rather than give the impression that it was located in the corn fields of Iowa. With this in mind, the School of Education faculty entered into a cooperative relationship with teachers, administrators, community organizations and students to design new programs that resulted in the following:

- * Acceptance by all parties of the view that existing programs were no longer suitable and had to be changed.
- * Despite some breast beating and harsh words, it was finally understood that personal and organizational differences had to be set aside so that efforts to benefit students and teachers could proceed.
- * All parties had a real voice in the shaping of programs.
- * Fordham came to realize that it could not tell parents and professional educators what it needed and then impose the "solution."
- * When new programs and courses were finally ready for approval, it was clear that varying interests had input in their structure.

After months of meetings and negotiations and, finally, approval, the revamped programs were ready for implementation. These programs reflected the following changes:

- * All graduate education students in all degree programs had to complete a minimum of six credits of course work in urban education. Students could enroll in such courses as: "Urban Education: Problems and

Perspectives;" "Urban Politics and Education;" "Contemporary Black America and Its Cultural Heritage;" and "Puerto Rican and Other Hispanic-American History and Culture."

- Offered a doctoral degree program specifically in the field of urban education.
- Emphasis was placed on involving faculty from other components of the university, such as the sociology, political science and economics departments to bring their expertise to bear on dealing with urban problems.
- Programs were geared for part-time graduate students in order to allow educators with limited funds to continue their studies and maintain their jobs at the same time. Courses were thus scheduled in the late afternoons, evenings and Saturdays. This policy was particularly effective in enabling Fordham to attract as students many educators from minority groups.

The urban education requirement resulted from the acceptance of the philosophy that guidance counselors, for example, would need to be familiar with Black history and culture to fully understand their Black clients, as well as being competent in guidance techniques. To be successful, administrators would have to know more than how to organize and supervise a school. Administrators would have to know about the politics of urban schools, the impact of decentralization, and the role of teacher unions.

There is a philosophical stance that urban educators must understand political science as it pertains to the politics of the ghetto and decision making. They must understand how economics affects both the schools and the residents of the community. Those educators who are to assume leadership roles and who will be involved with in-service programs in their home districts need insight into the forces operating in the state and local government which affect urban education. They must understand the social forces which influence urban life today. They must be aware, too, of the many educational activities that occur both inside and outside a school. Finally, educators must concern themselves with efforts to improve urban life in general. These beliefs were put into action in the following ways:

* Utilizing faculty with experience as teachers and/or administrators in the urban milieu and complementing them with theoreticians.
* Offering courses that are meaningful to educators in that they enable students to study the peculiar problems and resources of urban educational systems.
* Developing internships for students that permit the study and observation of the cultural, political, eco-

nomic and social realities of urban life. Thus, internships have been developed for students in the offices of U.S. Senators and Representatives, with Board of Education members, regional commissioners of education, as well as district school offices and schools.

- * Employing adjunct faculty such as Congressman Herman Badillo, Basil Paterson, former assistant chairman of the Democratic party, superintendents, and teachers who bring new insights to their students.
- * Attracting guest speakers to classes such as Albert Shanker, John Holt, Fred Hechinger, Roy Wilkins, James Farmer, leading community representatives and professional educators.
- * Bringing students from grades 6-12 to classes to facilitate interaction with educators on a person to person basis.
- * Emphasizing on-site education rather than demanding that all education take place within the confines of Fordham University.

In trying to map out a path for other universities to become integrally involved with urban schools, the following factors are a necessity:

- * Innovative leadership from the School of Education, District Superintendents, Principals, the UFT and communities.

* The inclusion of representatives of teacher organizations, school administrators, and community groups on school of education policy-making boards.
* The involvement of elected student representatives from graduate departments in every aspect of the policy-making process in the School of Education.
* The submission of grant proposals for funds that involved school districts and community organizations.
* The development of an alumni association that serves as a cadre in promoting the university and which could function as a bridge among schools, community and the university.
* Programs and faculty that could attract capable students from varying ethnic and racial groups.
* The development of an urban institute that could act as a lightening rod in attracting leading thinkers and doers from the urban scene to the university.
* A supportive university president.

There was a realization and acceptance of the fact that:

* Schools of Education by themselves could no longer dictate educational policies.
* It was vital for the university to leave its 'ivory tower' and to reach out to community groups and schools.
* Teachers and their professional teacher organizations,

administrators, and parents must be partners in the educational process.

- Schools of Education were not the sources of all educational wisdom.
- Programs must be developed jointly and be voluntarily accepted by all parties involved rather than imposed.
- The quality of health of the surrounding school districts was intertwined with the validity of the university.

Readers can better understand how these changes affected Fordham's educational stance by learning about Fordham's involvement in two programs in the late 1960's -- The Training of Teacher Trainers Program (TTT) and the Instructional Administrators Program (IAP) to train Black and Hispanic educators for leadership roles in education. Both of these programs resulted from the growing mutual trust of the parties involved and, more important, they illustrate that varying groups will subordinate some autonomy in order to improve the educational delivery system. Thus, other universities, school systems and community organizations can easily enter into similar cooperative ventures.

The TTT Program was aimed at influencing the course of teacher education by developing the abilities of teacher trainers to effectively improve the skills and techniques of in-service teachers. TTT resulted in the university realizing that it would now have to share with teachers, administrators and parents its once-exclusive role as the gatekeeper into the teaching profession.

As a consequence of the TTT program, many participants earned degrees ranging from B.A.'s to doctorates, and perhaps more important, an atmosphere of trust was engendered among university faculty, educators of grades K-12 and parents, at a time of unparalleled nation-wide friction between educators and parents in inner city areas.

The Instructional Administrators Program (IAP) funded by the Ford Foundation, under the leadership of Dr. Anthony Baratta, Chairman of the Division of Administration and Supervision, had as its primary objective, the producing of a cadre of Black and Hispanic educators so well trained in leadership techniques that they would be able to move into key administrative roles in school systems. Over a three year period, from 1967-1969, the IAP Program graduated 60 individuals, state certified as school administrators, who, indeed, now occupy key leadership positions in many school systems in the New York metropolitan area as superintendents, (e.g., Newark, New York City), deputy superintendents, and principals.

In contrast to later programs at other institutions, Fordham's philosophy was predicated on a base that there would be no diminution of program requirements and that to even consider such a course of action was inherently racist because it assumed that minority group educators could not meet exacting standards. This confidence that minority students could perform as well as non-minority has been justified by the accomplishments of program graduates. Further, there is little whispering that so-and-so received a "cheap" degree and holds a position because of membership in a particular racial group.

From the above descriptions, it is hoped that readers can easily comprehend why Fordham's School of Education views its participation in the Tenth Cycle Teacher Corps program as a natural outcome of earlier cooperative ventures. From reading the articles herein, it can be concluded that the Teacher Corps program designed by Fordham University and the parents, teachers, and administrators of District 10, represents an actualization of systemic educational change in the following ways:

* The inter-institutional cooperation between school and university has demonstrated that collaboration can bring about significant change in the training of teachers.
* The training of teachers occurred in an alternative school that is fully responsive to the highly individualized needs of the child in the urban situation.
* There has been systemic change within the university and the school through its institutionalization of the strategies that have demonstrated their effective-

ness in addressing the problems of children with learning and behavioral difficulties.

- The participation of the teachers' union in the governance component of the program has contributed significantly to the impact the program will have for possible dissemination and replication to other universities and schools across the country.

Three priorities formed the basic mandate for the Fordham University-District 10 Tenth Cycle Teacher Corps Program. The first priority was the necessity of meeting the needs of the urban child, especially those children with learning or behavioral difficulties. The second priority was the training of teachers and support staff to facilitate the formation of teaching teams so that the needs of children could be met in a variety of ways. The third important focus of this project was change, change as a demonstrable process leading to the best education for children with a wide spectrum of needs. To the extent that these priorities were achieved rests the success of the project.

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